The University of San Francisco

AN EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF THE PRESERVICE TEACHER
EDUCATION PROGRAM AT THE DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE FOREIGN
LANGUAGE CENTER ON THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING BELIEFS OF
PRESERVICE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS

A Dissertation Presented
to
The Faculty of the School of Education
Department of Leadership Studies
Organization and Leadership Program

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
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San Francisco
December 2011

UMI Number: 3490457

UMI

Dissertation Publishing

UMI 3490457

ProQuest®

THE UNIVERSITY OF SAN FRANCISCO

Dissertation Abstract

An Evaluation of the Impact of the Preservice Teacher Education Program at the

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center on the Foreign Language Teaching

Beliefs of Preservice Language Instructors

Preservice foreign-language teachers are adults with well-established beliefs.

They start teacher-education programs with traditional beliefs about language teaching

reflecting their own experiences. The field of foreign-language teaching, however,

underwent a paradigm shift from grammar-based to communicative foreign-language

instruction. Therefore, some of the beliefs of preservice teachers might be contradictory

to the new paradigm in the field and could be detrimental to their learning process in a

teacher-education program. Teacher-education programs are considered a "weak

intervention," because preexisting beliefs may stand in the way of transformation.

This evaluation study examined the impact of the preservice program at the

Defense Language Institute on the foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice

teachers. This 4-week program has the goal of foreign-language teachers adopting

communicative foreign-language teaching methodology. Eighty-nine participants in four

iterations of the preservice course completed the paper-and-pencil Foreign Language

Teaching Belief Survey at the beginning and the end of the program.

Findings from this study suggest that the beliefs of foreign-language teachers

might have changed after the preservice program. These findings, however, have to be

interpreted with caution, given the limitations of the one group pre/posttest design. The

newly formed beliefs about foreign-language teaching predominantly reflected

communicative foreign-language teaching pedagogy as propagated by professional

foreign language teacher organizations (ACTFL) and the field of second-language

acquisition. Despite the claim that educational experiences are the sources of teacher

beliefs, this study found no association between these two variables. Furthermore,

preservice teachers favored lesson planning and practice teaching and rated them most

influential for their views about foreign-language teaching at the end of the course.

This is the only study to date that investigates the effectiveness of a short,

intensive teacher-preparation program that is situated in the work context of the attendees

and emphasizes critical reflection and integrated practice teaching. It focuses on a

heretofore underresearched population of teachers of less commonly taught languages,

who are native speakers of these languages and migrated to the United States. Thus, this

study contributes to the knowledge base of the profession.

This dissertation, written under the direction of the candidate's dissertation committee and approved by the members of the committee, has been presented to and accepted by the Faculty of the School of Education in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education. The content and the research methodologies presented in this work present the work of the candidate alone.

Claudia Bey	3 October 2011
Candidate	Date

Dissertation Committee

Patricia Mitchell, Ph.D.	3 October 2011
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| Betty Taylor, Ph.D. | 3 October 2011 |

| Brian Gerrard, Ph.D. | 3 October 2011 |

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It takes a village

There were many people who supported me during my studies at the University of San Francisco and the dissertation-writing process. First of all, I want to acknowledge that none of this would have been possible without the tuition program of my employer, the Defense Language Institute. Special thanks go to my colleagues and collaborators at the Faculty Development Division for their support along the way. I also want to mention the Instructor Certification Course facilitators who graciously allowed me to collect data. Furthermore, I wish to acknowledge the pivotal role of all the volunteers who participated in the piloting and data-collection process for this dissertation and the many helpful suggestions and comments.

Of course, I need to thank all USF faculty and staff for guiding and supporting me for the last few years, while I was a graduate student in the program. Everyone played a role on my way to this dissertation: Thanh, who always greeted me with a bright smile and was genuinely concerned for everyone; Dr. Patricia Mitchell, my advisor and chair of the dissertation committee, who was there for me every step of the way. She always had time to listen, provide encouragement, and support. When I got lost in the maze of this academic journey, she pointed the way. The dissertation committee members, Dr. Taylor and Dr. Gerrard, were essential in providing their keen insights and made this a better dissertation.

Finally I want to say "gracias, amiga" for the encouragement and collaboration throughout the years and particularly during this journey.

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CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

The beliefs of preservice teachers about teaching and learning have been of central interest to teacher educators, because they can be resistant to change and act as filters for information provided in teacher-preparation programs (Brody, 1998; Calderhead, 1996; Fang, 1996; Hollingsworth 1989; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Richardson, 1996, 2003; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). For the purpose of this study, teacher beliefs are defined as those mental constructs that drive actions in the classroom and comprise the role of the teacher and learner and the foreign-language teaching methodology (Richardson, 2003).

Long before prospective teachers enter a professional-preparation program, they have formed beliefs about what constitutes good teaching (Levin & He, 2008; Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, & James, 2002; Richardson, 2003; Tsang, 2004; Virta, 2002). These beliefs stem from the thousands of hours in classrooms, a phenomenon that Lortie (1975) referred to as the apprenticeship of observation. A multitude of studies researched the impact of this apprenticeship and concluded that teacher-preparation programs are a "weak intervention" (Richardson, 2003). Preservice teachers believe that expertise in teaching is acquired through experience and that teacher-preparation programs do not contribute to their learning (Laslie, 1980; Lortie, 1975; National Center for Research on Teacher Learning [NRCTL], 1991). In the eyes of future teachers, good teaching seems to be a matter of motivation (Anderson & Holt-Reynolds, 1995), enthusiasm (NRCTL, 1991; Weinstein, 1989), personality and charisma (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Virta, 2002),

and imitating former teachers (Book, Byers, Freeman, 1983; Knowles, 1992; Virta, 2002). Furthermore, most teacher candidates hold traditional beliefs of the teacher handing down knowledge and students memorizing facts (Richardson, 1996; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984).

Because of the view of the almost impenetrable nature of preexisting beliefs about teaching and learning, there has been extensive debate about the effectiveness of teacher-education programs in the literature. Kagan (1992b) criticized that teachers leave teacher-education programs with the same or solidified beliefs they entered with (cf. Borko & Putnam, 1996; Hollingsworth, 1989; Holt-Reynolds, 1992). Findings from the Teacher Education and Learning to Teach study (TELT) similarly indicated that differences in the beliefs and knowledge of teacher candidates at the end of a program were mostly a function of preprogram beliefs and the conceptual orientation of the program (NCRTL, 1991).

Recently, however, there have been several studies that suggest that teacher-education programs can change beliefs and attitudes of teacher candidates (Bramald, Hardman, & Leat, 1995; Farrell, 2009; Leavy, McSorley, & Bote, 2006; Levin & He, 2008). These programs have been successful in changing views about teaching by focusing on these preexisting beliefs and on critical reflection. In their study of future elementary teachers, Levin and He (2008) found some beliefs such as those about instruction and learning were less resistant to change than those about the role of the teacher. Even though the study was conducted with elementary teachers, the results could be transferrable to the beliefs of secondary and postsecondary teachers across subject areas.

At the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), a wide variety of foreign languages are taught by native speakers, who have learned English as a foreign language in their home countries. Their perspectives about language teaching and learning were shaped by the cultural and educational contexts of their countries, which might differ greatly from those in the United States. The preservice program at DLIFLC is designed to bring about a change of perspectives in the educational beliefs of the novice teachers in the course of a 4-week intensive preservice program, an endeavor that might be futile in light of the scholarly literature.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the transformative effects of the preservice teacher-education program at DLIFLC on the foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers. The preservice education program is a 4-week intensive teacher-preparation course with a strong reflective focus that addresses foreign-language teaching and learning processes. Foreign-language teaching beliefs were generally defined as those mental constructs that drive action in the classroom and comprise the role of the teacher and learner, and the foreign-language teaching methodology (Richardson, 2003).

Background and Need for the Study

Decker and Rimm-Kaufman (2008) reported that the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education recommended that teacher educators increase their awareness of beliefs of their preservice teachers, and Raths (2001 postulated that beliefs should be used as one criterion for entrance into teacher-education programs. It is

essential to understand what beliefs preservice teachers hold when entering a teacher-education program in order to influence and adapt those beliefs to the current paradigm.

The preservice program at DLIFLC has the goal of familiarizing teachers from a variety of cultures with modern methods of foreign-language teaching such as communicative methodology. Many foreign-born teachers experienced a traditional transmission mode of teaching and learned English as a foreign language through a heavily grammar-based approach that did not lead to communicative competency in the language. Their beliefs about teaching foreign languages are based on their own experiences in language learning (Lortie, 1975) but are not adequate for teaching at DLIFLC, which subscribes to a communicative approach.

There has been an extensive debate in the literature on education about the effectiveness of preservice programs in bringing about changes in the views of teachers, but there are comparatively few studies addressing the foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers. The findings of one recent empirical investigation into the beliefs of foreign-language teachers parallels those in general-education research. Peacock (2001) conducted a longitudinal quantitative study using the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) survey (Horwitz, 1985). The population of the study was comprised of 146 undergraduate students pursuing a degree in teaching English as a second language in Hong Kong. Peacock found that existing beliefs about foreign-language teaching remained largely unaffected by the program, based on the results of the BALLI after one year. To change the beliefs of these future teachers, Peacock conducted a focused intervention that consisted of readings about communicative language teaching (CLT), discussions, and videomediated observations of communicative English classes.

Peacock reported changes in beliefs of the preservice teachers after the intervention, but did not collect data to document changes, nor did the researcher provide information about the length of the intervention, leaving the results of intervention unsubstantiated. The current research attempted to close the research gap and collect data about the beliefs of teachers regarding the role of the teacher, and various aspects of foreign-language teaching methods before and after a targeted intervention.

Another study addressing foreign-language teachers' beliefs was conducted by Mattheoudakis (2007). This was a quantitative study using the BALLI survey in an undergraduate program with 66 future English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in Greece. Over the course of the 4-year program, preservice English teachers filled out the survey at the beginning of each academic year. Results indicated that beliefs about language-learning aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, and the role of the teacher remained stable; whereas beliefs about the importance of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation in language learning, and beliefs about the importance of correcting beginners changed to varying degrees. Mattheoudakis concluded that transformation of beliefs is a slow and gradual process that unfolds over time and teacher-education programs play an important role in this process.

In contrast to the aforementioned studies, the preservice course at the DLIFLC is an intensive program of 160 hours and the question arose whether this short time period could affect the preexisting beliefs of prospective language teachers. The task of transforming beliefs appears to be extremely difficult and merits additional research.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this investigation was provided by the theory of transformative learning (Mezirow, 1990, 2000). This theory was developed by Mezirow in 1978 after his qualitative study of adult women returning to school or the workplace after an extended absence (Kitchenham, 2008), and a critique of the education system that narrowly defines learning as simply accumulating knowledge rather than questioning and challenging the relevance of existing cultural paradigms (Mezirow, 1990). Kitchenham reported that Mezirow intended to explore factors that facilitated or limited the progress of women in the qualitative study. On the basis of 846 responses to a nationwide telephone and mail survey, Mezirow concluded that participants in the adult-education programs had experienced a transformation. Table 1 provides an overview of the original 10 stages of transformative learning. In 1991, Mezirow inserted an additional stage to the process of perspective transformation that addresses the aspect of changing current relationships and forging new ones. This additional stage was added between Stage 8 and 9, but it is not necessary to move through all 11 stages for transformation to occur (Kitchenham, 2008).

The theory specifically addresses the learning processes of adults, who have established ways of thinking and viewing the world. Mezirow (1990) referred to these ways of thinking as frames of reference, meaning perspectives, habits of mind, and also used the terms *meaning scheme* and *meaning perspective* (Kitchenham, 2008). According to Mezirow (1990) frames of reference serve as the basis for construing meaning and interpreting events, or as sets of expectations or schemata that control the sense-making processes and actions of adults.

Table 1

Mezirow's 10 Stages of Transformative Learning

Phase	Stage
1	A disorienting dilemma
2	A self-examination with feelings of guilt or shame
3	A critical assessment of epistemic, socio-cultural, or psychic assumptions
4	Recognition that one's discontent and the process of transformation are shared
5	Exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions
6	Planning of a course of action
7	Acquisition of knowledge and skills for implementing one's plans
8	Provisional trying of new roles
9	Building of competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships
10	A reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's perspective

Note. Adapted from Learning to Think Like an Adult: Core Concepts of Transformative Theory, in J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Learning as Transformation: Critical Perspectives on a Theory in Progress*, 2000, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, p. 22.

Mezirow (1990) characterized these meaning perspectives as traps that control how events are interpreted in a biased and distorted way. Meaning perspectives and frames of reference are culturally transmitted rather than intentionally learned, and operate outside one's awareness. Mezirow (1990) further described meaning perspectives as rules for interpreting information that was uncritically acquired in childhood through the process of socialization, often in the context of an emotionally charged relationship with parents, teachers, or other mentors. The theorist posited that the emotional intensity of those learning experiences contributes to deeply embedded and intractable habits of expectation that constitute our meaning perspectives or habits of mind. Additional experiences tend to reinforce the earlier expectations about how things are supposed to be and thus start a cyclical process of reinforcing existing meaning perspectives and interpreting new information through the filter of these perspectives. Furthermore, these

frames of reference serve as personal theories of action that are automatically followed. In order for transformative learning to occur, meaning perspectives have to change and new interpretations, beliefs, and judgments are generated.

According to Mezirow (1990, 2000), a single incident, a disorienting dilemma that cannot be interpreted or integrated into existing meaning frames, can serve as a catalyst for the transformation of perspectives. This process is referred to as epochal transformation and can be painful, because it involves the critical questioning of deep-seated beliefs and values, and the realization that those beliefs may no longer be appropriate or relevant (Kitchenham, 2008). Epochal transformation often involves a complete paradigm shift.

Another transformative process is incremental transformation that involves the four stages of an elaboration of existing frames of reference, adding new frames of reference, transforming points of view, or transforming habits of the mind. This incremental process is supported by critical self-reflection and reflective discourse with others to create awareness of one's meaning perspectives and thus make them available for scrutiny and transformation. For example, the question of what it means to be a good foreign-language teacher could be explored in class. Discussants would become aware of their beliefs about good teaching and in listening to others' views might revise their own previously held perspectives. Thus, transformation means reassessment of previously unquestioned values, beliefs, actions, and feelings, and replacement of outdated and limiting perspectives (Mezirow, 1990).

Mezirow (2000) distinguished between subjective and objective reframing of meaning perspectives. Objective reframing occurs through an examination of the

assumptions of others, for example through a discussion in class and an attempt to discover the explanations and justifications for their beliefs. Subjective reframing occurs through critical reflection of one's own habits of the mind and substituting problematic frames of reference.

The goal of transformative learning is described as helping adults to "identify the frames of reference and structures of assumptions that influence the way they perceive, think, decide, feel, and act on their experience" (Mezirow, 1990, p. xiv) and "to challenge these presuppositions, explore alternative perspectives, transform old ways of understanding, and act on new perspectives" (Mezirow, 1990, p. 18). On an individual level, transformative education has the potential to guide adults to more adaptive and open meaning perspectives and beliefs, and is thus self-empowering, providing the opportunity to free oneself from the customary, often hegemonic ways of thinking and acting.

In short, adult students enter a teacher-education program with well-established beliefs that shape their worldview, their perceptions, and their evaluation of events. Some of those beliefs might be contradictory to the present understanding in the field and could be detrimental to the learning process of the teacher candidates. These unfounded beliefs need to be challenged, reflected upon, and transformed. Transformative-learning theory offered a framework for an incremental transformative-learning process or a complete paradigm shift for adult learners and provided the theoretical rationale for this study. One of the goals of the preservice program at DLIFLC is to transform the meaning perspectives or beliefs of foreign-language teachers, to make them more suitable to the context in which they will be teaching.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this research study:

1. To what extent did the foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers change after the training course?

2. What is the relationship between the beliefs of the preservice teachers and the teaching approaches they experienced as foreign-language learners?

3. What is the relationship between the foreign-language teaching approaches that preservice teachers experienced as foreign-language learners and the degree of transformation of foreign-language teaching beliefs?

4. Which parts of the training course did the preservice teachers perceive as most influential in transforming their foreign-language teaching beliefs?

Definitions of Terms

The following terms were identified and operationalized for this study:

American Association of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL): A professional organization for foreign-language teachers in the United States.

Belief: This term refers to a mental state in which an individual believes something to be true. A belief is a perspective, viewpoint, attitude, or feeling about something (Schwitzgebel, 2010).

Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI): This survey was created by Horwitz (1985) to gain insight into the beliefs of future foreign-language teachers and learners.

Communicative language teaching: This approach has the goal of enabling students to communicate about meaningful topics in a foreign or second language (Galloway, 1993).

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC): This is a government language school located in Monterey, CA and accredited by the Western Association of Schools & Colleges (DLIFLC, n.d.a).

Foreign-language teaching: This refers to the teaching of a language in a country where that language is not spoken.

Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey (FLTBS): The survey instrument used in this study to assess the beliefs and knowledge about foreign language teaching.

Instructor certification course (ICC): The preservice program at the DLIFLC that is investigated in this study.

Less commonly taught languages: This refers to any language other than Spanish, German, French, and Italian, according to the Modern Language Association Language Survey (Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2010).

Military language instructor (MLI): A member of the U.S. Armed Forces teaching a foreign language at the DLIFLC; in most cases a graduate of a language course taught at the institute.

Preservice program at DLIFLC: This is the foreign-language teaching-methods course of 160 hours that is mandatory for all newly hired foreign-language teachers, also referenced as the ICC. It addresses different areas of foreign-language teaching at the DLIFLC.

Preservice teacher: Any person newly hired at the DLIFLC who is required to attend the ICC and will teach foreign language at the institute.

Realia: Any object from the target culture such as clothing.

Teacher beliefs: This term refers to those views a teacher has about processes in the classroom such as the role of the teacher, instruction, and the students.

Transformative learning:

Transformative learning is the process by which we call into question our taken for granted frames of reference (habits of mind or mindsets) to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, and reflective so that they may generate beliefs and opinions that will prove more true or justified to guide action. Transformative learning often involves deep, powerful emotions or beliefs and is evidenced in action. (Transformative Learning, n.d.)

Limitations

Several limitations of this study in regard to the one-group pre/posttest design without a comparison group, the survey methodology, and the researcher are acknowledged and discussed in the following section.

1. Testing effect: This effect occurs due to repeated testing, as in a pre/posttest design. The responses on the posttest could be influenced by the pretest. There could be a practice effect and the research subjects could have become aware of what the researcher is interested in researching (Vogt, 2005). The intact groups of ICC participants were tested once at the beginning of the course and once at the end of the course, 4 weeks later. It is deemed possible that the preservice teachers participating in this study could have guessed that the researcher favored communicative teaching. In conjunction with social-desirability bias, the testing effect poses a severe limitation on this study. Additionally, Visser, Krosnick, and Lavrakas (2000) mentioned that subjects

in a panel survey study might want to appear consistent in their responses across waves of data collection. Therefore, the pretest could influence responses to the posttest.

2. Social-desirability bias: This bias in the results of a survey comes from subjects trying to answer questions as they should rather than in a way that reveals what they actually feel (Vogt, 2005). It is considered an important limitation for this study, because the population of newly hired foreign-language teachers at DLIFLC might think they should believe in CLT, especially after a program that espouses this methodology. One of the stated goals of the preservice program at DLIFLC is to have teachers adopt the communicative language-teaching methodology and make informed choices regarding their teaching practice. The posttest answers could therefore be influenced by this knowledge and not reflect participants' actual beliefs. In other words, the survey administration in the context of the preservice program could influence the answers on the posttest. According to Fowler (2009), certain steps such as self-administered surveys, assuring confidentiality, and anonymity could reduce the social-desirability bias. In the current study, surveys were self-administered, the identity of survey takers was protected, and individual survey results were accessible only to the researcher.

3. Regression to the mean is defined as the tendency in a pre/posttest design for the posttest scores to regress toward the mean. Individuals with extremely high scores appear to be decreasing their scores, and those with extremely low

scores appear to be increasing their scores (Vogt, 2005). Creswell (2008)
explained that regression becomes a threat when researchers select
participants for a study based on their extreme scores. In this study, however,
intact groups of participants in the preservice program at DLIFLC were
studied and no selection of treatment groups took place. Nevertheless, the
posttest scores have to be interpreted with caution, so that program effects are
not over- or underestimated due to the limitation of regression to the mean.

4. History is defined as an event that intervenes in the course of research and
makes it difficult to interpret the program effects. Vogt (2005) noted that
history effects are always a potential threat to validity for any nonlaboratory
study that lasts more than a few hours, and therefore, history becomes an
additional limitation for this study. Each of the four ICC iterations that were
studied took place in the natural environment and lasted for 4 weeks with the
exception of one group that took the ICC in a ½-day format for 8 weeks.
There could have been several events during that time influencing the
responses in the posttest.

5. Maturation is a threat to validity because of changes in subjects over time.
Maturation is not considered a severe limitation of this study, because the
length of the investigation for each of the ICC iteration was only 4 weeks. All
course participants were adults and it is therefore assumed that they did not
mature very much during this short time span.

6. The Hawthorne effect poses a limitation to this and any other research,
because the subjects could change their behavior due to the fact that they are

being studied. The Hawthorne effect would thus influence the pre- and posttest responses of study participants, but it is not known what the extent of this effect would be and whether the impact varied from pre- to posttest.

7. Measurement error: Additional limitations to the study include the survey methodology, which relies on self-reports of teachers that may not accurately reflect the beliefs on which decisions and actions in the classroom would be based. Further, survey takers might have failed to pay close attention to a question, or interpreted the questions on the survey in a different way than intended. Survey statements might also be ambiguous or confusing. In addition, survey participants might not be able to accurately remember the foreign-language teaching methodology they experienced as learners (Fowler, 2009).

8. Sampling bias: This study used convenience sampling of intact groups of ICC participants. Although generalization to a wider population of foreign-language teachers is not the intent of this study, the additional limitation of bias in sampling is noted. Foreign-language teachers attending the preservice program at DLIFLC at the time of this study might be different from other DLIFLC foreign-language teachers who attended the course in the past or will attend in the future. Due to changing requirements for foreign languages at DLIFLC, different teachers with different nationalities and languages than those surveyed might be hired. Therefore, the results of the study could not be generalized to other iterations of the preservice program at DLIFLC.

9. Researcher bias: Finally, the study was limited by researcher bias. The items on the survey are representative of the researcher's interpretation of the construct of foreign-language teacher beliefs. In an effort to control for researcher bias, the survey items built on previous research by Horwitz (1985) and Bell (2005) and were carefully validated by a panel of experts.

Significance

Empirical studies addressing change of foreign-language teaching beliefs were uniformly conducted at university-based programs (Farrell, 2009; Horwitz, 1985; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Peacock, 2001) with preservice teachers who were pursuing undergraduate and graduate degrees. During a required foreign-language teaching-methods course at a university, preservice teachers spend approximately 32 hours over the course of a 16-week semester in class. In contrast, the preservice program at DLIFLC consists of 160 hours over the course of 4 weeks. The preservice teachers at the government language school attend 400% more hours of training in a time span that is 75% shorter. It is not known whether the numbers of hours or the time span during which these hours occur are factors that contribute to a belief change. Some researchers (Bramald et al., 1995; Mattheoudakis, 2007) postulated that change is dependent on time, whereas others (Desimone, 2009; NRCTL, 1991) attributed belief change to structural factors of the program. According to Mezirow (2000), transformations can be epochal or incremental. This research study provides information about the importance of time and structural factors of teacher-preparation programs that may lead to transformational change.

This study provides an overview of the pre and postprogram beliefs of teachers of less commonly taught languages, and thus, closes a research gap. Many of the studies of foreign-language teacher beliefs examined teachers of English as a second language or EFL (Farrell, 1999, 2009; Peacock, 2001), or more commonly taught languages such as French, German, and Spanish (Burke, 2006; Rieger, 2009). This study investigated the foreign-language beliefs of teachers of less commonly taught languages and may make an important contribution to the field of foreign-language teacher education. In addition, this study provides quantitative data about the relationship of foreign-language teaching methods that were experienced by future foreign-language teachers and their preprogram beliefs, which adds to the knowledge base in the field of foreign-language teacher education. Moreover, data about the relationship of foreign-language teaching methods that were experienced and the degree of transformation as a result of an intensive foreign-language teacher-education program contributes to the field of foreign-language teacher education and can inform the practices of foreign-language teacher educators.

The results of the investigation should be of interest to policymakers at the Department of Defense, who provide the funding for the mandatory teacher preservice program at DLIFLC and thereby determine the length of the program. Furthermore, the results could be important for designers of teacher-education programs and particularly foreign-language teacher-preparation programs using native speakers from different teaching cultures.

Additionally, this study provides information on how to create effective learner-centered preservice foreign-language teacher-training programs that take preexisting attitudes into account. An additional application of the results of this study might be for

universities that use foreign-born teaching assistants. Furthermore, the results might be useful in shaping policy decisions regarding hiring, preservice, and in-service programs at the Defense Language Institute. Finally, better prepared foreign-language teachers would be able to increase the foreign-language proficiency of their students.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview

In this chapter, the relevant scholarly literature related to the transformation of preservice-teacher beliefs about foreign-language learning and teaching is discussed. This review addresses the six themes of (a) transformative learning, (b) the nature of beliefs, (c) preservice teacher beliefs about teaching and learning, (d) transformation of beliefs, (e) current and traditional foreign-language instruction, and finally (f) the beliefs of foreign-language preservice teachers.

The first part of this literature review provides perspectives about transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 2000) and the role it plays in the learning of adults. It particularly explores the specific strategies that have been effective in fostering the transformation of beliefs. It further emphasizes the role of reflection for the transformation of perspectives.

The second part of the literature review explores why beliefs are important and how they influence the thoughts and actions of preservice teachers. Further, a discussion follows regarding what constitutes beliefs and what separates them from knowledge. Then, relevant research regarding how beliefs are formed, and the role they play in the learning process of preservice teachers is included. Finally, the different views of stable and dynamic beliefs are described.

Next, the review narrows its focus and provides a description of what preservice teachers believe about teaching and learning, instructional methods, and the roles of the teachers and students. It is hypothesized that, due to the experiences these preservice

teachers have had during their educational processes, their beliefs will mostly reflect traditional teaching practices. These outdated beliefs are the target of teacher-preparation programs; therefore the next theme is devoted to a review of empirical literature on the transformation of beliefs.

According to Raths and McAninch (2003), the process of transformation is not well understood. Some researchers found that the beliefs of prospective teachers are almost impossible to change; whereas others reported varying degrees of success in influencing and transforming the beliefs of new teachers and their actions in the classroom.

To provide a background for the discussion of foreign-language-teaching beliefs of teachers in the United States and abroad, a short description of current foreign-language teaching methodology is provided. The tenets of CLT are juxtaposed with the traditional foreign-language teaching methodology. Specifically, the teaching of grammar and vocabulary, methods of error correction, and the role of the teacher and students are of interest, because it is in these areas that current foreign-language teaching methodology differs most from traditional methods. Further, the difficulties and challenges of implementing CLT by teachers with traditional beliefs about language learning are considered.

Finally, the specific beliefs of foreign-language teachers are addressed. Descriptions of the beliefs about the importance of grammar and vocabulary are provided by discussing the results of empirical studies using the BALLI (Horwitz, 1985). The beliefs of foreign-language preservice teachers, who were educated abroad and learned English in their home countries, are important in this context. Almost 98% of the faculty

at DLIFLC are native speakers of the language they teach (DLIFLC, n.d.c.). They bring

their beliefs about teaching and foreign-language learning, which were shaped by the

educational culture of their home countries, to the preservice program at the DLIFLC.

Transformative Learning

The goal of transformative learning is to have adults recognize and critically

examine their attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions, to transform their outdated

presuppositions into more appropriate and adapted ones, and finally act on those

transformed beliefs (Mezirow, 1990). For the most part, the teachers at DLIFLC are

native speakers of the foreign language they teach at the Institute and they have absorbed

the prevailing set of assumptions or meaning perspectives of the social group and culture

in which they grew up. This process of enculturation forms a matrix that shapes the way a

person views the world and all social relationships, and essentially perpetuates the status

quo (Kennedy, 1990).

Kennedy (1990) asserted that there is an inherent conflict in personal and societal

meaning perspectives and that transformation could take place once an individual

becomes aware of those differences and questions accepted beliefs. The goal of the

preservice program at DLIFLC is to have teachers critically reflect on their individual

perspectives about foreign-language learning and adapt their preexisting beliefs to the

new context.

Brookfield (1990) described meaning perspectives as assumptions that act as

perceptual filters of reality. They confirm and shape perceptions, make it possible to

understand events, and guide behavior. Furthermore, these assumptions are not easily

accessible as they appear to be common sense and familiar. Dominice (1990) confirmed

that the knowledge, culture, and values of adults are the result of their life histories and not only of the formal-education process. Dominice (1990) considered adult learning to be largely a process of reorganization and enrichment of existing knowledge and belief structures that take place through social interaction in a variety of social contexts.

Imel (1998) explained that the change of meaning schemes and the integration of new ideas into existing schemes are a routine part of learning; whereas transformative learning occurs much less frequently. The transformation of existing frames of references takes place through critical reflection, or premise reflection, and can result in a complete paradigm shift or a gradual process of incremental transformation (Mezirow, 1990, 2000). Snyder (2008) observed that some individuals move smoothly through the stages of transformation, but the process is lifelong and often occurs in fits and starts. Likewise, Cranton (2002) affirmed the importance of critical reflection as the means for transformation, and additionally noted the role of talking to others, exchanging opinions and ideas, and engaging in discussions of alternative viewpoints. Furthermore, Cranton underscored the relevance of personality, relationships, insight, and intuition for transformative learning.

Transformative-learning theory was criticized as focusing solely on the cognitive aspects of the learning process at the expense of the role of emotions (Clark & Dirkx, 2008; Dirkx, 2008). In an expansion of Mezirow's transformative learning theory, Dirkx emphasized the role of emotions as central to the learning process and argued that emotions are part of every experience and its interpretation. Emotions affect formal and informal learning processes because they shape the relationship to the teacher and other learners, and provide the basis for reactions to class assignments and evaluations. In

addition, cultural and societal norms are bound in emotional reactions to events, and therefore constitute an important part of an individual's cultural identity and frames of reference. In Dirkx's view (2008) emotions constitute alternative ways of knowing. Through transformative learning the relationship of the self to the world changes; this change is not only a change of knowledge but also of emotions, a holistic process.

Almost 20 years earlier, Gould (1990) addressed the psychological difficulties of transformative processes and the powerful emotional reactions change can invoke. Gould described transformation as potentially unsettling, emotional, and anxiety provoking, even though adults have to continually adapt to changing life circumstances, and transform attitudes and behaviors that no longer serve them well. Gould posited three stages of adult development and transformation that resembled Mezirow's (1990, 2000) stages of transformative change: confronting a new situation that requires change; analyzing past and present realities; and finally, arriving at a clearer understanding of current reality.

The process of coming to terms with the experiences and emotions of growing up as part of a minority were addressed by Johnson-Bailey and Alfred (2006). Ellwood (1995) stressed the importance of transformative learning processes for teachers of diverse classes, writing about the importance of confronting the assumptions, prejudices, and emotions toward minorities, and advocated continuous examination of teachers' perspectives and an exploration of others' experiences as ways to transform thinking and change teaching practices. Similarly, based on their own experiences in a culturally mixed collaborative, Kasl and Elias (2000) concluded that adult educators must undertake their own transformations of culture to become competent in diverse environments.

Based on a review of 10 qualitative studies directly investigating Mezirow's transformative learning theory, Snyder (2008) found the theory provided an effective framework for adult education, even though difficulties in measuring the final stages of the transformative process were noted.

To reach the goal of transformative learning in an adult-education program many different techniques and strategies such as critical reflection and questioning (Brookfield, 1990; Cranton; 2002; Mezirow, 1990), reflective journal writing (Boud, 2001; Kitchenham, 2006), critical incidents (Brookfield, 1995), and student autobiographies (Cranton, 2002) are recommended. All of these techniques are designed to make individuals aware of their assumptions and habits of mind including the emotions attached to them (Kitchenham, 2008) and to question their validity before new frames of mind can be established and transformative learning can occur. Mezirow (1990, 2000) emphasized the role of critical reflection for transformative learning and posited three types of reflection: content reflection (what was done in the past), process reflection (the causes for those actions), and premise reflection (examining one's worldview in the context of a specific belief or value).

Based on many years of experience in a teacher-education program with transformative learning goals, Cranton (2002) created various activities to foster transformative learning based on Mezirow's stages of development. For example, films or documentaries can create a catalyst or disorienting dilemma to start a transformative process; student histories, time capsules, and metaphor analysis provide opportunities to articulate assumptions; reflective journals and critical incidents help students question those assumptions; role plays, critical debates, and dialogue journals create openness to

different points of views. Cranton encouraged the creation of student-generated support networks during the stage of transformation and revision of existing frames of reference, and experiential-learning activities accompanied by learning logs to act on the newly gained perspectives.

In an earlier publication, Cranton (2000) cautioned that the transformative-learning process might look very different for different personalities and proposed various strategies such as simulations, role-plays, and field trips in addition to critical incidents, and collaborative problem solving to reach those learners who might not respond to logical, analytical teaching techniques. Hammerman (1999) asserted that teacher-development programs with explicit transformative goals may be perceived differently and be effective in varying degrees dependent on the developmental stage of the teacher. Based on this analysis of three transformative programs for mathematics teachers, Hammerman concluded that individual teacher participants may need different professional-development strategies and support to make changes in their belief systems and teaching practices. Likewise, Sokol and Cranton (1998), in their case study of a 3-week transformative program for teachers of adults, found that the 16 participants in a methodology course of adult education experienced different levels of transformations and self-awareness. All course participants were given an assessment (Personal Empowerment through Type) based on Jungian types at the beginning of the course and, based on the observations of the researcher, gained awareness about how their personality and their teaching practices were related.

Brookfield (1990, 1995) created a technique called "critical incidents" to bring deeply held beliefs and values to the surface, make them available for examination and

critical self-reflection, and reconstitute or transform these beliefs to make them more integrative and inclusive. Critical incidents highlight particular, concrete, and contextually specific aspects of an individual's experience and are important for transformative learning for two reasons: They are incontrovertible sources of data representing learners' existential realities, and they allow insight into their worldview and assumptions. Participants in a workshop for teachers might be asked to write about their best or worst experience as an educator and analyze their own and their group's resulting narratives. In triads, participants are guided through a process of content, process, and premise reflection that allows the sharing and investigation of different meaning perspectives and their eventual transformation. Brookfield recommended this approach as less threatening than asking direct questions about values and assumptions. Additionally, Brookfield (1995) advocated the techniques of critical reflection by asking questions about paradigmatic, prescriptive, and casual assumptions about teaching. Critical reflection can be accomplished by viewing teaching practices from the different perspectives of teachers' own autobiographies, their learners, colleagues, and the literature of the field, as well as writing journals for teachers and students, videotaping, peer observation, student portfolios, and critical-incident questionnaires for students, critical-incident conversations for teachers, and critical reading of the literature.

Boud (2001) emphasized the importance of journal writing and reflection for transformative learning and debunked some ideas commonly held about this practice. Boud described reflection as "taking the raw material of experience and engaging with it as a way to make sense of what has occurred" (p. 10) and thereby facilitating a learning process. Thus, journal-writing facilitates revisiting and reevaluating past experiences and

tending to the emotions attached to those experiences. Boud asserted that critical reflection did not have to be limited to past events but could take place in the present and be extended to the future. Reflection in the "midst of action" takes on the form of becoming aware of the factors of a situation, possibly changing the course of the action through a conscious decision, and finally reflecting on the motives and assumptions for those decisions. Boud conceded that it would be difficult to write in a given situation, but encouraged notetaking to enable the recall of enough information to aid the reflective process.

Boud (2001) introduced the notion of reflection in anticipation of an event, and affirmed that journals could be a planning tool to write about what is known about the context and the participants; in other words, enabling a reflective process about the anticipated content, process, and premises of the event and its participants. Boud acknowledged that reflection and journal writing are often solitary in nature, and could therefore reinforce existing meaning schemes and suggested the exchange of journals to promote a transformation of perspectives and transformative learning by incorporating the views of others.

To summarize, transformation of habitual ways of thinking and interpreting might be possible through the use of critical reflection before, during, and after an event, reflective discussions, journal writing, and exchanges. The preservice program at DLIFLC that is the focus of the current study incorporates many of these techniques to help foreign-language teachers at the Institute adapt their perspectives to the current situation.

The Nature of Beliefs

The importance of beliefs for teacher-education programs is well documented in the scholarly literature (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008; Kagan, 1992b; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 2003). Fang (1996) explained that due to a shift from behaviorism to cognitive psychology, interest in the thought processes of teachers rather than their behaviors became the focal point of educational research. Effective teaching and student achievement were no longer considered the result of specific classroom behaviors that could be taught to prospective teachers. Instead, the thought processes of teachers that led to specific decisions and actions in the classroom took center stage, because it was thought that most of those actions were based on the beliefs a teacher holds (Lortie, 1975; Pajares, 1992).

Early research focused on teacher attitudes, which were defined as beliefs about students and teaching. Attitudes and beliefs can be considered subsets of the same construct, namely mental states that drive action. Other related constructs are conceptions, perspectives, orientations, and theories. Later researchers used the term *attitude* for the affective aspects of predispositions toward something, and the term *belief* was reserved for the cognitive and conative aspects of the construct (Richardson, 1996).

In his review paper, Pajares (1992) emphasized that research on teacher thinking should narrow the focus specifically on teacher beliefs as an important area of educational investigation, but asserted that empirical research was made exceedingly difficult because of the ill-defined construct "teacher beliefs." In fact, Pajares stressed that the terms *attitudes, values, images,* and *theories,* among others, were often used synonymously with *beliefs*.

Pajares (1992) extracted a list of criteria in an attempt to better define the construct of beliefs. Beliefs are formed early through a process of cultural transmission; belief perpetuate themselves, even in the face of new experiences and schooling that may contradict established beliefs. Furthermore, there is no internal consistency in the belief system and its substructures. Beliefs serve as a means to define and understand the world and act as filter for new experiences, and therefore become very difficult to change unless a gestalt shift occurs. As a matter of fact, the earlier a belief is formed, the more difficult it is to alter; whereas, newly acquired beliefs are quite vulnerable to change. Beliefs are instrumental in defining behavior and organizing knowledge and information. Additionally, they strongly influence perception and affect behavior. Pajares also underlined that beliefs can be inferred from a specific behavior, and as mental states are not directly observable.

Barcelos (2003) criticized the view of beliefs as a stable mental constructs and defined them as socially constructed and variable in nature. Likewise, Guskey (1986) emphasized the interactive nature of beliefs and actions that influence each other; whereas, Decker and Rimm-Kauffman (2008) asserted an imperfect correspondence of beliefs and action. Especially in the preservice context, teacher beliefs are viewed as a reasonable proxy for practice, because changed teacher actions cannot be an outcome of a teacher-preparation course. Dufva (2003) described beliefs as situated, embodied, dynamic, and systemic.

> Whatever individuals believe is a consequence of the series of interactions they have been involved in and discourses they have been exposed to. Accordingly, it is a mistake to analyse beliefs without considering the social and cultural context (past and present) they occur in. (p. 135)

Dufva (2003) made three additional important points about memory and beliefs, emphasizing the dynamic nature of beliefs stored in memory. Dufva posited that memory is formed through ongoing interactive processes between individuals and the environment, refuting the notion that memory functions like a bank account in which additional memories are added, but stressed that each new experience changes and restructures the existing organization of memory and consequently the beliefs that are stored there. Thus, beliefs result from the experiences and the interaction of individuals over the course of their lives. As these processes are continuous in nature, beliefs too are dynamic and susceptible to change. Dufva explained that the contradictory nature of beliefs is due to the variety of contexts to which an individual has been exposed. Different perspectives based on different experiences in different contexts are integrated into a belief system that may be contradictory. Finally, Dufva asserted that beliefs are both individual and shared at the same time. Unique experiences lead to unique individual beliefs, but participation in a community and culture leads to shared experiences and beliefs.

In summary, although some researchers characterize beliefs as stable mental constructs that are deeply embedded and not amenable to change (Pajares, 1992); the sociocultural view asserts that beliefs are dynamic and adaptable to the situation (Barcelos, 2003; Dufva, 2003). The tenet of dynamic and adaptable beliefs is the foundation of the preservice program at DLIFLC and of the current study. It is hypothesized that the beliefs of the foreign-language teachers transform, due to exposure to new concepts and the interaction with a context different from their previous experience, which takes place in the preservice program. The next question to explore is

whether beliefs and knowledge are different, how they influence each other, and how they inform teacher decisions in the classroom.

The Differences between Beliefs and Knowledge

Pajares (1992) argued that the interpretation of facts is affected by the beliefs and attitudes about those facts, and therefore viewed knowledge as a subcategory of beliefs. Knowledge is semantically stored, whereas beliefs are episodic and serve as a template for teaching. According to Pajares, knowledge and beliefs are intertwined and during the process of teaching, decisions are mostly based on teaching beliefs that are accessed intuitively, because there is no time for reflection during the teaching process. Decker and Rimm-Kaufmann (2008) also noted that the teaching process involves a multitude of quick decisions about a variety of problems; teachers draw on past experiences and their interpretation of a situation that is rooted in their belief systems.

Borko and Putnam (1996) questioned Pajares' (1992) attempt to differentiate between knowledge and beliefs and maintained that due to the interrelatedness of all knowledge, the division between the two terms becomes blurred and is arbitrary. Calderhead (1996) affirmed the differentiation by referring to beliefs as suppositions and ideologies, and to knowledge as factual propositions that inform action. Richardson (1996, 2003) defined beliefs as propositions that an individual or group of people believe to be true, and further posited that beliefs are considered psychological concepts, whereas knowledge is epistemological. Beliefs have a more affective and evaluative component, whereas knowledge is based on facts. Woods (2003) also argued against the separation of knowledge and beliefs and declared that "the boundary between the two is flexible, changeable and fuzzy" (p. 206). Woods maintained that both are constructed over time

and new information is interpreted through existing knowledge and belief structures. Woods conceded, however, that beliefs include value judgments, are more idiosyncratic and subjective, whereas knowledge is more objective and factual.

Kagan (1992a), asserted that "most of a teacher's professional knowledge can be regarded more accurately as belief," and further "knowledge is regarded as a belief that has been proven true on the basis of objective proof or consensus of opinion" (p. 73). In the absence of any correct answers in the domain of teaching, teachers have to choose between different alternatives that are often equally true. Kagan posited that classroom decisions are based on the teacher's personal belief system and depend on the situational context. "Researchers have found that a teacher's beliefs usually reflect the actual nature of the instruction the teacher provides to students" (Kagan, 1992a, p. 73), even though they could be mediated by differences in the instructional materials that might be available. Similarly, Anderson et al. (1995) reasoned that teaching involves decision-making based on general principles, but because of the complexity and uncertainty of the situation, teachers continuously have to test these principles and make adjustments to what they know and believe about teaching a specific subject to specific students in a specific context.

Additionally, beliefs about content knowledge, what a teacher thinks, knows, and believes about a subject matter exerts a powerful influence on their teaching practices (Borko & Putnam 1996; NRCTL, 1991; Pajares, 1992). In their review of literature, Borko and Putnam wrote that the understanding preservice teachers have about their subject and what they believe students should learn determines how it is taught. Teachers with weak content knowledge emphasize rules and facts, whereas teachers with high

content knowledge tend to use higher order questions, emphasizing conceptual, problem-solving approaches that are more accepted in today's educational system.

In summary, there is unequivocal agreement that decisions in the classroom are based on the beliefs and the knowledge of a teacher, even though beliefs and knowledge interact with one another and cannot be clearly distinguished. This notion has several implications for the current study: Firstly, it is important to determine what the beliefs about teaching and learning are, which was a focus of this study. Secondly, to enable teachers to make changes in their beliefs about language teaching and their future actions in teaching, it is necessary to involve the affective as well as the cognitive domain, namely beliefs and knowledge. Thirdly, in the current study, no attempt was made to differentiate between beliefs and knowledge. This investigation considered the preservice teachers' perspectives or interpretations of specific knowledge items gained from second-language-acquisition research. Following is a discussion of how teacher beliefs are formed and how they relate to specific personal characteristics.

The Development of Beliefs

Richardson (1996) noted three different sources for teacher beliefs: namely personal experience, experience with schooling and instruction, and experience with formal knowledge such as subject-matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Personal experience based on ethnicity, gender, and socioeconomic background, among other factors, shapes the worldview and the beliefs of a person. Celep (2000) also found evidence that gender, educational level, and age influence teachers' beliefs. In a quantitative cross-sectional survey study of 310 Turkish preservice elementary teachers, Celep investigated the beliefs about the principal, as well as other teachers and students,

and found that female teachers believed that students worked hard; these teachers were more authoritarian about classroom control and enforcing discipline. Celep (2000) attributed this phenomenon to the patriarchic structure of Turkish society. This is an important finding in light of the fact that almost all language teachers currently attending the preservice program at DLIFLC are from traditional Asian and Middle Eastern societies such as China, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iran, and Iraq. Additional findings point to age as an important factor for teacher beliefs. Celep reported that older teachers held more positive views of students' willingness to learn than younger teachers, but also relied on discipline as a classroom management tool more than younger teachers. Furthermore, educational level correlated with expectations about student achievement. Less educated preservice teachers had more sympathetic views about students' achievement and their effort; whereas, more educated teachers had higher expectations for their students.

In their quantitative study of 134 preservice teachers, Minor et al. (2002) found no relationship between ethnicity, preferred grade level of teaching, and beliefs about the characteristics of effective teachers. Additionally, the researchers identified no correlation between gender and the importance of student centeredness, being ethical, having enthusiasm for teaching, and being a competent instructor. Male teachers, however, were two and a half times more likely to endorse subject knowledge as more important for effective teaching than women. Similarly, minority preservice teachers were more likely to emphasize enthusiasm for teaching over knowledge of the subject.

Decker and Rimm-Kaufman (2008) reported that level of education, the grade level to be taught, previous teaching experience, and whether teaching was considered a

stepping stone to another career, shaped the beliefs. Further, they found gender to be a significant factor in their study of 357 elementary school teachers. Male preservice teachers tended to endorse a teacher-centered class more than their female counterparts, and Decker and Rimm-Kaufman also regarded age to be an important factor for the beliefs of preservice teachers. Confirming the results of Celep's study (2000), Decker and Rimm-Kaufman found that younger teachers held more negative views about student motivation than their older colleagues.

Richardson (2003) considered experiences made during the educational process as most influential in the belief formation of teacher candidates. Unlike any other profession, prospective teachers learn about teaching through their experiences in classrooms as students (Darling-Hammond, 1999). Lortie (1975) referred to this phenomenon as the apprenticeship of observation. Through thousands of hours spent in classrooms, deep-seated beliefs about teaching and learning, the role of the teacher and the role of the students are formed. These beliefs constitute the schemata that filter and evaluate new information and are not easily changed. By the time prospective teachers enter a teacher-preparation program, their preexisting beliefs may reflect a more traditional orientation toward teaching and thus may get in the way of educational reform (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Richardson, 1996, 2003).

In summary, the beliefs of prospective teachers tend to be based on their own school experiences as learners during the apprenticeship of observation, which are then taken as the best way to teach and learn (Anderson et al., 1995; Brody, 1998; Calderhead, 1988; Joram & Gabriele, 1998; Kagan, 1992b; Knowles, 1992; Lortie, 1975; Minor et al., 2002; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 2003). However, these beliefs might no longer be

appropriate, because they are based on a different definition of learning and a different context. A lack of formal content knowledge additionally leads to more traditional teaching approaches characterized by knowledge transmission (Borko & Putnam 1996; NRCTL, 1991; Pajares, 1992). Minor et al. (2002) argued that it is necessary for teacher candidates to examine and confront their preexisting beliefs in the context of research and modern approaches to teaching. They remarked that one of the goals of teacher-preparation programs is the professionalization of teachers, to replace their personally held lay beliefs with those that are based on empirical evidence (cf. Richardson, 2003). To achieve this goal, it is essential for teacher educators to know about the beliefs held by preservice teachers, to make them explicit and thereby available to close scrutiny, reflection, and transformation (Anderson et al., 1995; Kagan, 1992a; Minor et al., 2002; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). Thus, the goals of the preservice program at DLIFLC are congruent with those of other teacher-education programs. This study set out to measure the beliefs of teachers with a variety of educational experiences in different cultures before and after a foreign-language teaching-methods course. It additionally attempted to find out whether different personal characteristics such as age and gender relate to specific beliefs.

<center>Preservice Teacher Beliefs about Teaching and Learning</center>

In this section the beliefs of preservice teachers in regard to teaching and learning are addressed. It is important for teacher educators to know what the beliefs of the incoming teachers are regarding the role of the teacher, the learner and the learning process to tailor the education program toward these beliefs. Decker and Rimm-Kaufman (2008) noted that among other factors, beliefs are influenced to an extent by the grade

level a prospective teacher chooses to teach. Additionally, Richardson (2003) posited that ethnicity and experiences in the school system of a particular culture strongly influence the beliefs held by preservice teachers. Despite the wealth of literature on preservice teachers' views about teaching and learning, there are only a few publications addressing the beliefs of teachers planning to teach in adult education or the tertiary level. Therefore, the following discussion provides only a broad framework of preservice teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning.

In the eyes of future teachers, good teaching seems to be a matter of motivation (Anderson & Holt-Reynolds, 1995), enthusiasm (Weinstein, 1989), personality and charisma (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Virta, 2002), loving children (Book et al., 1983; Laslie, 1980), and imitating former teachers (Book et al., 1983; Knowles, 1992; Virta, 2002). Furthermore, most teacher candidates hold traditional beliefs of the teacher handing down knowledge and students memorizing facts (Richardson, 1996, Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984). In short, preservice teachers often have a very simplistic view of what it means to be a teacher (Holt-Reynolds, 2000; Pajares, 1992).

In 1989, Hollingsworth conducted a qualitative study with 14 preservice teachers chosen from a population of 53 teacher-education candidates. Initial baseline interviews were conducted with all 53 preservice teachers and revealed that almost 70% or 37 prospective teachers believed that learning is accomplished through teacher-fronted and textbook-based instruction. Seven out of the sample of 14 preservice teachers held the same preprogram beliefs. Through interviews, observations, and learning logs, Hollingsworth captured the teacher candidates' educational experiences, their current teaching and classroom-management practices, how they interpreted their role as

teachers, their beliefs about how children learn, and their knowledge of reading instruction, and followed their progress during the 9-month program. Hollingsworth (1989) concluded that change could occur if there was a fit between the orientation of the teacher-education program and the preprogram beliefs of the teacher candidates.

Minor et al. (2002) conducted a quantitative study of 134 preservice teachers during their first week of enrollment in an education class and found that only 12.7% of the teachers in their sample expressed a progressive orientation to teaching, seeing themselves as facilitators who provide meaningful educational experiences; whereas, 28.4% subscribed to transmissive beliefs, seeing their role as dispensing knowledge.

Fajet, Bello, Leftwich, Mesler, and Shaver (2005) conducted a mixed-method study with 52 preservice teachers enrolled at the University of Miami, Florida to determine what these teacher candidates believed to be the qualities of good and bad teachers. Five themes emerged from surveys and interviews: (a) affective personal characteristics, (b) pedagogy/classroom management, (c) attitudes and behaviors toward students, (d) attitudes toward job/teaching in general, and (e) knowledge of subject matter. Most preservice teachers found effective teaching methods to be an important characteristic of good teachers, who were described as creative, making learning fun, considering individual students' strengths and weaknesses, and using multiple teaching methods to reach all students. Affective characteristics were the next most nominated. Good teachers were believed to be enthusiastic, hard-working, caring, and patient. Fajet et al. noted that the future teachers were not concerned about cognitive aspects of teaching, namely knowledge of the subject matter.

In regard to the question of what characteristics a poor, ineffective teacher had, the theme of attitudes and behaviors toward students was mentioned most frequently with attributes such as being rigid, uncaring, and boring. Only 12% of all responses pertained to poor pedagogy and classroom-management skills such as failure to use multiple methods of instruction as the most important characteristic of a poor teacher. Additionally, one student remarked that "bad teachers just give work sheets and lecture all the time" (Fajet et al., 2005, p. 723). The researchers were surprised that lack of knowledge about the subject was the least mentioned aspect of a poor teacher. Fajet et al. warned that "education majors underestimate the complexity of teaching … they assign great importance to their personal characteristics and less importance to pedagogical training" (p. 724).

It appears that today's preservice teachers enter a teacher-preparation program with essentially the same beliefs as those more than 20 years ago. In 1989, Weinstein conducted a mixed-method study of of 113 education students. The answers of the education students to a questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions were compared to those of 74 teachers. Weinstein (1989) came to the conclusion that the vast majority, 81% of elementary preservice teachers and 86% of the secondary teachers displayed an unrealistic optimism in their teaching abilities. Weinstein attributed these findings to self-serving bias, and further suggested that this optimism might relate to preexisting beliefs about teaching. In the descriptions of the attributes a good teacher should have, affective variables such as caring and concern for children and the ability to relate to students figured prominently, while academic aspects of teaching were minimized or omitted.

Özgün-Koca and Shen (2006) conducted one of the few qualitative studies of secondary preservice teachers from another country. Their 51 participants were enrolled in the mathematics and physics-education program at the University of Ankara, Turkey. This study is reviewed here because the majority of foreign-language teachers at DLIFLC migrated to the United States as adults and came from a variety of professional fields not necessarily related to foreign-language teaching. Based on an analysis of concept maps, journals, and interviews, Özgün-Koca and Shen concluded that preservice teachers held mainly traditional views about teaching and learning. Prospective teachers expected their students to work hard, prepare for class, and listen to the teacher to absorb the material that was presented. Students were to answer the teacher's questions, but otherwise be quiet and well behaved.

According to Özgün-Koca and Shen (2006), cultural influence manifests itself mostly in the role ascribed to the student. They explained that silence is interpreted as a sign of respect in Turkey. The role of the teacher was mostly described as being a subject-matter expert and being friendly to the students. The typical view was given by one preservice teacher who stated that "learning occurs while the teacher tries to teach, s/he transmits his or her own knowledge and the student receives it" (p. 957). Even those prospective teachers, who had mentioned student-centered classrooms had only a very limited understanding of the concept of active learning and reverted back to the traditional models of teaching after a field experience. These preservice teachers found it too difficult to create a learner-centered class because of the demands of tradition, crowded classrooms, differences in students' level of previous knowledge, and insufficient time.

This attitude appeared by no means limited to preservice teachers in Turkey. Holt-Reynolds (2000) reported the case of a young prospective English teacher who struggled over the course of 3 semesters to incorporate learner-centered instruction, which was interpreted as having a class discussion with everyone participating. The discussion should then be followed "by telling students the right ideas if they failed to locate them through the discussion process" (p. 24). The study participant admired teachers who had content knowledge and dispensed that to their students, a model of teaching that this participant consciously adopted. Teaching meant *telling* to this preservice teacher.

Greene and Zimmerman (2000) conducted a qualitative study asking students enrolled in an introductory education course to define learning and teaching at the beginning and the end of the semester. They found almost 65% of the students believed that learning was essentially passive and consisted of absorbing information, and that teaching was seen a passing on information by almost 70% of these teacher students. At the end of the semester, 20% still believed that learning was passive and 40% still believed that teaching was knowledge transmission. The researchers noted though that beliefs about learning and teaching had been restructured and were more refined.

Decker and Rimm-Kaufmann (2008) conducted a quantitative study of 397 preservice teachers enrolled in a teacher-preparation program at the University of Virginia. Most participants (79%) had no teaching experience at all. Participants in the study completed the Teacher Beliefs Q-sort that addresses beliefs and priorities about classroom practices, which had to be sorted into different categories. A factor analysis revealed four different factors, namely (a) teacher-centered classroom environment, (b) implicit structures/focus on process, (c) teacher-directed instruction, and (d) negative

view of students' motivation. One of those factors, teacher-directed instruction, is of interest in this context. Items related to this factor include the preference for whole-class activities, and the usefulness of drill and recitation for factual information. Prospective teachers in middle and high schools had an even higher preference for teacher-directed instruction than prospective elementary school teachers, thus replicating findings that teachers in secondary education emphasize subject-matter knowledge that is taught by traditional methods of knowledge transmission.

In a critique of teacher-preparation programs in the United States, Darling-Hammond (1999) noted that elementary teacher preparation is weak in subject matter while secondary teacher preparation is weak in knowledge about learners, due to the time limitations of these programs. Thus, preservice teachers planning to teach in high school or community colleges such as DLIFLC may be more focused on content and acquisition of knowledge by students rather than appropriate teaching strategies. Additionally, they might resort to the uninspired, teacher-centered methods they themselves experienced during their apprenticeship of observation. Darling-Hammond further criticized that university faculty do not practice what they preach, as the prevailing methods of teaching in a university program are still lecture and recitation.

In summary, the overwhelming majority of preservice teachers have only limited understanding about what it means to teach and learn. They subscribe to outdated, teacher-centered instruction with a heavy reliance on knowledge transmission that they most likely experienced in their own apprenticeship of observation. This traditional orientation holds true across different subject areas and educational levels to be taught, and applies to teacher candidates from the United States as well as from other countries.

The preservice program at the DLIFLC that is the focus of the current study aims to transform these preprogram beliefs into more informed and better suited ones; the next section reviews the literature on transformation of teachers' beliefs.

<div style="text-align:center">Transformation of Teachers' Beliefs</div>

The literature addressing the possibility of a transformation of belief structures or meaning perspectives is mixed. Based on a review of the literature on teacher beliefs, Pajares (1992) characterized beliefs and meaning perspectives as too deeply embedded to be transformed; whereas, the sociocultural perspective including transformative theory asserts that belief structures are amenable to transformation or at least incremental change. Raths and McAninch (2003) remarked that it is not well understood how the beliefs of teachers are influenced and changed. On the one hand, there are a large number of studies that demonstrate the intransigent nature of teacher beliefs and on the other hand, some of the more recent studies show that changes of different aspects of the belief structure are possible.

Even though most research studies take place in the context of professional development rather than in preservice education (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008), they still provide important insights that are transferrable to the preservice context and are therefore reviewed here. Preservice teachers are adults who enter a preservice program with established meaning perspectives and beliefs (Lortie, 1975) and are, in that respect, very similar to in-service teachers who might reinforce their preexisting meaning schemes through their daily practice, unless they experience a "disorienting dilemma" that could cause a transformation (Mezirow, 2000). Decker and Rimm-Kaufman (2008),

however, claimed that preservice teachers' beliefs are more malleable than those of in-service teachers.

Guskey (1986) reported that it is easier to change the behaviors and actions of a teacher than transform their underlying beliefs, and further, that beliefs change as a consequence of actions that are perceived as improving results. Pajares (1992) reported that beliefs are the best predictors of action. Similarly, Richardson (1996) described the relationship between beliefs and actions as reciprocal. Beliefs trigger specific actions, and experiences and reflections on these actions might lead to changes in beliefs.

Lortie (1975) expressed pessimism about the ability of preservice programs to change the beliefs of teacher candidates through formal education. Most teachers characterized their profession as largely self-made, in which the internalization of common knowledge did not play a large part. Teachers believe that expertise in teaching is acquired through experience—trial and error—in the classroom. Laslie (1980) echoed these sentiments, remarking that novice teachers think they can only learn from teaching experiences and not from college professors. Therefore, Laslie advocated that the unrealistic beliefs of teacher candidates needed to be examined and challenged in a program with a heavy field component (cf. Minor et al., 2002). Unfortunately, the attitudes of preservice teachers toward education programs did not change significantly over the next 10 years. The TELT, a research project of NRCTL (1991) located at the University of Michigan, conducted a survey study of 700 prospective and beginning teachers, and interviewed and observed a subset of 160 teachers from 11 different program sites. They found that 99% of the 405 preservice teachers in their sample rated

getting more teaching experience as most helpful for their professional development, followed by opportunities to talk to other teachers, to observe, and to be observed.

Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) conducted a mixed-methods study with a survey and follow-up interviews with 13 elementary student teachers during the last semester of a 2-year program. They found that the views of their participants solidified as a result of practice teaching. Student teachers became more articulate about their positions and also more comfortable. The researchers concluded that student-teacher socialization was not totally determined by prior beliefs and experiences, but regarded the process as negotiated and interactive, even though influenced by preexisting beliefs.

Based on a review of the 40 qualitative studies from 1987 to 1991, Kagan (1992b) found that in all but one study the pretraining beliefs of teacher candidates remained stable. During the first stage of professional development novice teachers try to gain knowledge about their students, which is used to modify their self-image as a teacher, and develop procedural knowledge about classroom management and instruction. Kagan (1992b) criticized that teacher-education programs failed to meet the needs of novice teachers.

Another example of this phenomenon is found in Holt-Reynolds (1992), who conducted a qualitative study with nine preservice teachers without any field experience during a methods course at a Midwestern University. Despite advocating constructivist learning principles in a reading course, and actively questioning the value of knowledge transmission, the teacher students considered listening to a lecture as active learning. The majority of the students rejected or misinterpreted the constructivist ideas propagated in

the teacher-education program because those ideas were not congruent with their beliefs (Anderson & Holt-Reynolds, 1995; Holt-Reynolds, 1992).

In a qualitative study, Joram and Gabriele (1998) reported similar results. The 53 participants in an introductory educational psychology course were asked to describe their views of learning and teaching at the beginning of the course (pretest) and again at the end of the course (posttest) in an open-ended questionnaire. Additionally, students were asked what changes they experienced as a result of the course. Even though the teacher-education program explicitly dealt with preexisting beliefs of teacher candidates, there was relatively little change in objective measurements. Learning was seen as absorbing information by 36% in the pretest, which decreased to 28% in the posttest. Teaching was regarded as passing on information by 55% in the pretest; whereas, 51% still had that same belief in the posttest. However, in response to the question of how the program had influenced their views about teaching, 49% of teachers stated that a significant change in their beliefs had occurred. They realized that teaching is more than transmitting information that students are required to memorize.

Taylor (2003) explored the question of whether attending graduate school could cause a transformation of teacher beliefs, specifically using the transformative theory as a theoretical foundation. The 16 participants were master's students in adult education and also taught classes for adults in different settings. The interpretative and qualitative research consisted of two initial interviews and a third interview 2 years later. Due to mortality, only 10 of the original 16 participants were available for the final interview. Nonetheless, after 2 years of graduate study, participants still held the same beliefs about the role of the teacher, teaching as knowledge transmission, but an emergent change in

understanding adults' experiences was noted. According to the author, the lack of change might be attributed to individual factors such as readiness for change, resistance, and contextual factors, as well as characteristics of the graduate program.

Whitelaw, Sears, and Campbell (2004) conducted a mixed-methods study at the University of Alberta that explored participants' change of attitudes and practices toward technology, their role as instructor, and beliefs about teaching and learning through participation in a year-long program. The research was explicitly based on Mezirow's (1990) transformative-learning theory. The program was a collaborative instructional-design project that involved faculty and technology experts and had 48 faculty participants using critical reflection and learning communities as foundations. Through surveys and interviews, the authors found that most participants did not experience significant transformative learning. However, it has to be noted that transformative learning does not always result in a complete paradigm shift, but can be incremental and be characterized "as shifts in some attitudes, fluidity or greater openness in some assumptions and perspectives, greater engagement and empowerment, greater/more aware skill use, and greater awareness" (Fetherstone & Kelly in Snyder, 2008, p. 171).

Bramald et al. (1995), who investigated a cohort of 162 teachers pursuing teaching certificates, criticized the conclusions about the limited effects of preservice courses on student teachers' thinking as too pessimistic and needing more refinement. They conducted a mixed-methods study with a survey component administered at different times during the program and an interview of 10 students at the end of the course. Survey results indicated that there were no statistically significant changes in average scores, but the follow-up interviews, in which participants elaborated on their

survey responses, revealed changes in their views about teaching. The researchers concluded that small statistical changes did not equate to small changes in thinking.

S. Swain (1998) reported on the transformation of beliefs and teaching practices of four teachers who participated in a year-long professional-development program to improve the teaching of writing. Data consisted of interviews, observations, lesson plans, and individual and shared reflections that made the transformations observable. The researcher concluded that study participants developed as reflective practitioners and became aware of their individual and their group's change.

Tillema (2000) demonstrated that beliefs are dynamic and context-specific. In a longitudinal mixed-method study with 36 preservice teachers in the Netherlands over the course of one academic year, practice teaching led to changes in beliefs; however, these changes were not sustained, as many teachers reverted to their prepracticum beliefs only 3 months after the teaching practice. It is noteworthy though that the beliefs of the teachers continued to evolve due to influences of the program. In contrast to other researchers (Kagan 1992a; Richardson, 2003), who asserted that beliefs guide actions in the classroom, Tillema concluded that there is almost no relationship between beliefs and actions and that beliefs "do not seem to exert much influence, or interfere with, their learning of proficiency" in teaching (p. 587). Tillema conceded, however, that beliefs and a focus on beliefs in teacher-education programs "provide a way to talk and reason about performance" (p. 587). Woods (2003) came to a similar conclusion, observing that the stated beliefs might not be the actual bases for the decision-making process, but that actions are influenced by many different factors that are not necessarily in the awareness of the decision-maker. Woods further introduced the concept of "cognitive readiness for

change" that connects the elements of knowledge, beliefs, and attitude to create receptiveness for new information presented in a teacher-education program.

In another study addressing the attitudes of teachers toward technology, Kitchenham (2006) found support for positive changes of existing beliefs and transformative theory. The researcher worked with 10 volunteers with varying technology expertise over the course of 8 months and analyzed their journal entries and questionnaire responses based on Mezirow's (1990) stages of transformation. Kitchenham explored how teachers progressed through the stages of disorienting dilemma, change in meaning perspective, revised frame of reference, and critical reflection on assumptions and self. Participants in the study reached a stage of empowerment and changed worldview that was not limited to a change in attitude toward technology. Another example of successful transformation of teachers' beliefs and meaning perspectives was provided by Hurd and Licciardo-Musso (2005) who both participated in a lesson-study program. The lesson-study model is cyclical and involves the four steps of analyzing the curriculum and student-learning needs, collaboratively planning a research lesson, teaching and observing the lesson, reflection, and change of the lesson. The successful transformative professional-development program for elementary school teachers was described as teacher-led and community-based with many opportunities for active learning. The program lasted for a more than a school year.

Leavy et al. (2006) posed the thesis that it is imperative to examine the beliefs of preservice teachers to tailor education programs. In their action research, the researchers had 124 preservice teachers in Ireland and America create metaphors about teaching and learning. The metaphors were classified into three different categories: (a) behaviorist:

teaching is considered knowledge transmission and learning passive knowledge absorption (b) constructivist: learning as an active process with a teacher as facilitator, and (c) situative: learning and knowledge are situated in a specific historical, social, and cultural contexts. Initially, most metaphors were behaviorist in nature (52% for Irish teachers and 47% for U.S. teachers), whereas 31% of the Irish metaphors were constructivist compared to 17% of the American ones. At the end of the year-long program, it appeared that the Irish teachers were more resistant to change; 50% held onto behaviorist beliefs compared to a decrease to 33% for American teachers. However, there was a significant increase in the constructivist metaphors of both groups, indicating that transformation of beliefs through teacher-education programs is possible.

The qualitative study of Shockley, Bond, and Rollins (2008) investigated the transformative-learning process and resulting paradigm shift in 68 full-time classroom teachers, who were enrolled in a 2-year master's program. Data analyzed were reflective essays, postings on a course website, and journal entries collected over the course of the 2 years. The program was characterized by integration of arts, reflective practice, and critical reflections on assumptions about teaching and learning. Teacher students participated in electronic web-based forums, classroom demonstrations such as skits and monologues, theater presentations, small- and large-group discussions, journaling, a technology project, and cultural-exchange experiences. Researchers found a significant paradigm shift in the majority of the students, evidenced by excerpts of their learning journals that showed clear developmental progress. One of the conclusions of this research was that teacher-education programs need to individualize their programs and it

further provided evidence that the combination of using adult learning principles together with critical reflection can lead to changes in belief systems and educational practices.

Another study that showed the effectiveness of teacher-education programs was conducted by Farrell (2009). This qualitative study of seven master's-level teaching English as a Second Language students at a Canadian university used concept maps at the beginning and end of the year-long course to examine whether any conceptual change had taken place as an effect of attending the program. Students were to draw a concept map about the meaning that teaching the English language held for them. The initial maps were used to bring tacitly held beliefs about teaching English to the surface, and were then compared to the postcourse maps to track any changes. Additionally, participants were asked to write short descriptions of the changes and the reasons for it, and they were also interviewed about their maps and their perceptions of the program. A keyword analysis was applied to the data, and results indicated that the teacher-education program had some impact on participants' prior beliefs about teaching, and that using concept maps might be a useful tool to bring these conceptual changes to the surface.

Levin and He (2008) explored the content and the sources of teacher beliefs. In their qualitative study they examined 94 belief statements of prospective elementary teachers about the teacher, instruction, the classroom, students, and the sources of these beliefs such as family, culture, religion, experiences, and teacher-education programs. Even though 35% of all beliefs were based on family background and their learning experiences in K–12 classrooms, 66% of beliefs were based directly on the teacher-education program. The teacher-education experience mostly influenced the beliefs about

instruction and students, whereas family background was most influential for beliefs about classrooms and the role of the teacher.

In a 2010 study using a case-study approach, Tanase and Wang challenged the notion of intractable teacher beliefs and found that change of beliefs is possible in the relatively short time period of one university methods course. The researchers chose 4 participants from 21 students in an introductory methods course. Data collected were from a survey with open-ended questions about learning and teaching administered at the beginning and end of the semester, weekly reflections on course readings, and observation notes of microteaching events. Two of the four participants did not change their beliefs; whereas, the remaining two experienced moderate to substantial belief change that was also reflected in their teaching practice.

Ng, Nichols, and Williams (2010) conducted a quantitative study of 140 preservice teachers in Australia who were attending a year-long postgraduate education course. Data were collected at four times during the course of study with the first survey serving as a baseline. At the end of the study researchers had 37 matched surveys (32% response rate) from the four data-collection points. The survey was comprised of 22 statements using a Likert-type scale and four open-ended questions. The researchers found that teacher beliefs can be affected by the teacher-education program, specifically by teaching practice. Significant differences in beliefs about student and teacher behaviors were found between the four test administrations. The results of this study need to be interpreted with caution though, because of threats to validity due to testing, history, and maturation. Furthermore, the results of this study did not corroborate the findings of

Tillema (2000), in which beliefs stabilized over time and after an initial change reverted

back to precourse levels after a period of only 3 months.

In short, it appears that some of the beliefs teacher candidates hold about teaching

have to be considered core beliefs that are not amenable to change, whereas some lasting

transformations in the belief structure were demonstrated as a result of teacher-education

programs that focused on those beliefs, incorporated elements of critical reflection,

opportunities for active learning and experimentation, a climate of openness, and respect

for others and their different viewpoints. Successful programs that have the potential to

transform or influence teachers' thinking and actions in the classroom were embedded in

the professional context of their participants, were collaborative in nature, and took place

over time (Desimone, 2009). Likewise, the final report of the TELT study noted four

conditions of programs that engender belief changes for in-service teachers:

> First, teachers need a chance to consider why the new practices are better than
> more conventional approaches. Second, they must see examples of such practices.
> Third, it helps if they can experience such practices firsthand as learners. Fourth,
> they need on-site support and assistance in learning to put new practices in place.
> (NCRTL, 1991, p. 68)

This study examined whether a transformation of beliefs can be brought about by

the preservice program at DLIFLC, which shares some of the characteristics with other

successful programs described above. The next theme of the literature review provides

information about current and traditional foreign-language teaching.

<div align="center">Foreign-Language Teaching Methodology</div>

This theme provides a short sketch of the two most influential approaches to

foreign-language teaching. It should serve as background for the foreign-language

teaching beliefs of preservice teachers abroad and in the United States, as well as

language teachers in secondary and tertiary levels of education. Most current foreign-

language teachers likely experienced a traditional teacher-fronted approach to language learning that emphasized accuracy over meaning, while most current foreign-language methods courses propagate communicative approaches (Hu, 2002; Li, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999).

In 1993, ACTFL established the Standards for Foreign Language Learning to guide the language-teaching profession in curriculum development and teaching practices. The organization set forth the five Cs for foreign language instruction: communication, culture, connection, comparisons, and communities. In contrast to traditional foreign-language teaching methods that emphasized grammar and vocabulary, the ability to communicate with other speakers of a foreign language was established as the ultimate goal of instruction. Students were to gain knowledge and an understanding of foreign cultures, acquire information from sources that are only available through the foreign language and its cultures, compare their own culture with the one studied, and participate in the multilingual communities at home and around the world.

Savignon (1997) formulated the development of communicative ability or communicative competence as the goal for foreign-language teaching. It comprises the components of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence that are briefly described. Savignon defined grammatical competence as "mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to foreign words and sentences" (p. 40). This competence is demonstrated by applying grammatical rules in spoken and written communication, not by merely knowing and stating the rule. Sociolinguistic competence requires an

understanding of the social context of the language, the role of the participants, and the functions of the language. In other words, sociolinguistic competence addresses how something is expressed in a particular social context. Discourse competence goes beyond the ability to understand sentences and instead addresses the ability to interpret texts in a context, to read between the lines and determine the values, intentions, and purposes of the speaker or writer. Strategic competence is essentially a compensatory strategy for linguistic or sociolinguistic limitations and makes it possible to sustain communication through the use of paraphrasing, circumlocution, and guessing. This modern view of foreign-language teaching constituted a drastic paradigm shift for the language-teaching profession and caused a conundrum for many teachers.

Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) conducted a mixed-method study with 10 Japanese language teachers in Australia to investigate how these teachers understood CLT, which is strongly supported by the Australian government. A thematic analysis of the teachers' interviews revealed four conceptions about CLT: (a) has the goal of learning to communicate in a foreign/second language, (b) uses mainly speaking and listening, (c) involves little grammar instruction, and (d) uses time-consuming activities (p. 501). Teachers understood that communication was a central part of CLT, but had doubts that everyone could attain proficiency in a second language. Additional obstacles were seen as lack of time and lack of teachers' language proficiency.

All teachers in Sato's and Kleinsasser's sample (1999) agreed that the acquisition of a foreign language was most effective when focused on speaking and listening, but they were concerned about the development of reading and writing, as these skills were assessed in government-mandated tests. In regard to the teaching of grammar, one teacher

was confused about how to address the teaching of grammar and correct errors, "Because people have taken it so far to the point of banning of grammar teaching or of the banning of drilling" (p. 504). The researchers concluded that the teachers in their study did not know how to foster grammatical accuracy, or simply thought that teaching grammar was not part of the CLT approach. The teachers agreed that linguistic accuracy should not be overemphasized and that errors are a natural part of language learning, but insisted that complex structures had to be drilled through repetitions to become automatic.

Despite the statement of ACTFL that "grammar and vocabulary are essential tools for communication" (ACTFL, 1993, p. 3) and the inclusion of grammatical competence is an important factor in the communicative competence, the controversy about the teaching of grammar continued. Many teachers in the United States and EFL teachers abroad believed that foreign-language teaching had changed from an almost exclusive focus on accuracy and grammatical forms to one that concentrated on meaning and communication and neglected structural accuracy (Li, 1998).

Lightbown (1998), a renowned researcher in the field of second-language acquisition, a language teacher and teacher trainer, characterized traditional language instruction as "preventive pedagogy," because "students were prevented from saying anything unless they had just heard the model they were to echo or had practiced it thoroughly and could say it without making mistakes" (p. 190). DeKeyser (1998) noted that traditional grammar-based language instruction meant "checking and improving the students' memory of rules and vocabulary items, and checking and improving their comprehension of grammar rules that had been taught" (p. 50). In the past, attainment of

language proficiency was not a goal of foreign-language learning and therefore, classroom practice was limited to drilling of verb conjugations and noun declensions.

In some countries, however, students and teachers still do not have communicative goals for language study. Doughty and Williams (1998) and Li (1998) provided examples of traditional foreign classroom settings in Japan or Korea with the goal to prepare students to pass an examination, and students as well as teachers resist CLT. Similarly, Hu (2002) described the teaching of English as a foreign language in China as following the traditional model of grammar study with memorization of rules, translation, and an emphasis on written language to enable students to read literary classics.

CLT propagated instructional processes had the goal of using the foreign language to communicate, to focus on meaning rather than on accuracy or at least address accuracy in the context of communication. Littlewood (1981) noted that a communicative approach to language teaching opened up a wider perspective on language insofar as it considered not only the grammar and vocabulary but also the communicative functions of that language. Savignon (1997) stated that the language-teaching profession around the world recognized that meaningful language use was central to the acquisition of communicative skills, and further, that CLT with the goal of developing communicative competence had become a synonym for innovative teaching.

Some proponents of the communicative approach, however, claimed that the focus on meaning meant that grammar should not be taught, and errors should not be corrected. Errors would work themselves out eventually, as long as the students had enough exposure to authentic language and opportunities for communicative interaction

(Lightbown, 1998). Numerous research studies of immersion language classes in Canada demonstrated that this approach was not effective though (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; M. Swain, 1998). After years of meaning-focused language without attention to grammatical structures, the language of the students from these programs lacked accuracy in even some basic structures.

Based on research in Canadian French immersion classrooms, M. Swain (1998) emphasized that CLT, without any attention to the language system (grammar, syntax, vocabulary, and pronunciation), did not provide everything that is needed to attain proficiency in a language, but traditional grammar-focused instruction that required students to memorize rules was equally insufficient. M. Swain introduced the so-called dictogloss in which students listen to a story and then, collaboratively, recreate the story. This technique forced students to pay attention to meaning and form at the same time. The results of an experimental study with 48 students in an eighth-grade French-immersion class showed increased grammatical accuracy of learner language for the treatment groups in the posttest that was administered 1 week after the treatment.

In 1981, Littlewood noted that students should not only learn to manipulate language structures but must connect these structures to communicative functions in real situations. The concern should not be on mastery of structures alone but on the process of communication through language. Littlewood introduced many different classroom activities that combined focus on meaning with a focus on structures, such as information-gap activities where learners have different information that needs to be shared to solve a problem, such as planning an itinerary where one learner might have information about the bus schedule and one about the flight schedule, or cutting up a

story into single sentences and giving the learners the task to reconstruct it and then create a summary. Additionally, simulations, role playing, discussions, and debates were recommended for communicative-language classrooms. Further, Littlewood encouraged language teachers to use the target language in the classroom and also noted that the role of the teacher in a communicative-language class encompassed many more roles than the traditional "dominator" role. In a communicative-language classroom, the teacher is a "facilitator of learning" who leads the students to greater communicative ability and to that end is a classroom manager, a consultant or advisor and monitor during group and pair work, and a cocommunicator who might participate in activities (p. 93).

In their review of second-language research, Doughty and Williams (1998) wrote that not all grammatical structures have to be taught explicitly, but that the language-acquisition process becomes more efficient, if "it engages the cognitive processing ability of the learners" (p. 205) and creates opportunities to use problematic grammatical structures during communicative interactions. Likewise, Lightbown (1998) argued for the integration of meaning-focused and structure-focused approaches and suggested that language teachers focus learners' attention on specific language features during interactive, communicative activities to develop communicative and grammatical competency. A short explicit focus on a given language structure during communicative activities should enable the learner "to see the relationship of what was meant and how it should be said" (p. 193). Lightbown conceded that separate grammar instruction especially for rare or difficult grammatical structures might be useful as long as clear examples and simple, short explanations were provided and the emphasis was not on rote practice and accuracy alone.

The debate about the role of grammar in CLT is ongoing, but there is agreement that learners have to be provided with tasks to function in the language. Even though a variety of definitions for tasks exist, the following principles for task design are commonly applied. Tasks are primarily meaning-based and include information gaps that require students to exchange information in pairs or small group (Ellis, 1999; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Tasks reflect the real world and require the use of real-world language. They require a product or outcome such as beginning language students setting up and collecting information for a class address book (Brandl, 2008). Learners are given an opportunity to manage the discourse, and resolve difficulties and misunderstandings through a process of negotiation of meaning. Teachers who create more opportunities for learners to take control of the interaction might create better conditions for the acquisition of a language (Ellis, 1999; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

At the same time, Ellis (1999) contended that there might be cultural expectations particularly in foreign-language classrooms that prevent teachers from implementing CLT. Ellis raised the question of how teachers can afford opportunities for language acquisition with a maximum of learner control without relinquishing their culturally constructed identity. Hu (2002) also provided the example of the People's Republic of China, which is a likely representative of other Asian countries. Education is seen as an accumulation of knowledge that resides in written texts, and the teacher is a revered person whom students are to respect. The teacher's role is to dispense knowledge and the students' role is to repeat, memorize, and understand, which is in direct conflict with the tenets of CLT that favor oral communication in small groups and different teacher and student roles.

Brandl (2008) noted the lack of high quality materials for languages other than the most commonly taught ones such as English (as a second or foreign language), Spanish, French, and German as one of the challenges for CLT. These language materials should come from a variety of authentic sources such as newspapers, videos, television, and the Internet to illustrate real-world language usage and provide realistic samples of the language. Not only do teachers have to try to locate authentic materials to match the proficiency level of the student, but they also have to create tasks to develop communicative competence, which places considerable demands on teachers' time and ability to design tasks at the appropriate difficulty level (Hu, 2002; Li, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). For these reasons, Brandl recommended a mixture of textbook-based and authentic materials.

Another source of controversy in CLT is the use of the target language. The maximum yet balanced use of the target language by the teacher is recommended. Target-language use provides a model to the students, which promotes their language acquisition (Brandl, 2008). Many teachers, however, use English to explain grammar and unknown vocabulary items, give instructions and help students with learning problems, and some students get frustrated with the exclusive usage of a teacher's target language (Brandl, 2008). Some teachers, who are not native speakers of the language they teach might be concerned about their own language proficiency and sociolinguistic competence (Hu, 2002; Li, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Nevertheless, it is recommended to maximize the use of the target language to set a good example for the students and to provide opportunities to foster the development of strategic competence. It is equally important,

however, to achieve a balance between exclusive and not enough target-language use (Brandl, 2008).

In summary, CLT has been accepted as the standard for foreign and second-language teaching by professional organizations such as the ACTFL and has evolved over time. It focuses on communicative functions in all skills and integrates meaning and language structure to attain communicative competence. CLT makes use of meaningful tasks in real-world situations that are relevant to learners, the use of authentic materials from a variety of print and spoken sources, and the interaction of students in pairs and small groups. These characteristics of current foreign-language teaching methodology that is propagated in the preservice program at DLIFLC continue to clash with the beliefs of foreign and second-language teachers who experienced traditional language teaching methods. Thus, the next theme is devoted to a description of the beliefs about foreign-language teachers based on the available empirical literature.

Beliefs of Preservice Language Teachers

Many studies assessing student and teacher beliefs about language learning are based on an instrument that was developed by Horwitz in 1985. BALLI was created to find out what preconceptions prospective teachers hold about language learning and teaching based on their own experiences with language learning. Horwitz (1985) suggested that these learner preconceptions must be made explicit and addressed directly in a teacher-preparation program and specifically in a language-teaching-methods class. The instrument was meant as a discussion tool in class to help the teacher address beliefs of students. Additionally, it was supposed to serve as an advance organizer for the curriculum of a language-teaching methodology class, because the results of the BALLI

can guide the methods-class teacher in tailoring and facilitating the class. According to Horwitz (1985) using the BALLI "will contribute to an understanding of why foreign language teachers act the way they do" (p. 338). Furthermore, Horwitz asserted that becoming aware of the underlying beliefs a teacher holds about foreign-language teaching might lead to a conscious decision-making process about teaching practices.

Initially, 25 language teachers from different cultural backgrounds were asked to compile a list of their beliefs about language learning, and then this list was reviewed and vetted by foreign-language educators. The BALLI addresses beliefs about the difficulty of language learning, foreign-language aptitude, instructional strategies to develop proficiency, language-learning strategies, and motivation. In this context the items dealing with instructional strategies are important and this review will focus on that area. Horwitz (1985) observed a change of attitudes and beliefs about foreign-language teaching with a shift toward more communicative approaches, but the results of Horwitz' 1988 study with 241 German, French, and Spanish first-semester students did not unequivocally support this observation. Although a majority ($n = 143$) of students disagreed and strongly disagreed with the notion that learning a foreign language is a matter of learning vocabulary, almost 40% agreed or strongly agreed with that statement. Almost half of all respondents ($n = 110$) disagreed with the idea that it is most important to learn grammar rules when learning a foreign language, but 36% ($n = 86$) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

In 1995, Kern conducted a quantitative study using the BALLI with 288 beginning French students and their teachers at the University of California, Berkeley. Kern compared the beliefs of the students at the beginning and the end of one semester

with those of their teachers to find out whether the learners' beliefs were influenced by their teachers. An important limitation of the study pointed out by the researcher was the lack of generalizability, because the population of Berkeley students is not typical of undergraduates in the United States or even in California. Additionally, it has to be noted that the students' data was obtained through a pre/posttest design without a comparison group, but it appears that the teachers filled the BALLI out only once. Kern (1995) found that the beliefs of the Berkeley students were consistent with "current thinking in foreign language pedagogy" (p. 76). It is not clear whether these students had the goal of becoming language teachers. Therefore, this review will only elaborate on the beliefs of the teachers. The group of 12 language instructors consisted of nine graduate students, two lecturers and one tenure-track faculty member, thus at least the graduate students could be considered similar to preservice teachers.

These French instructors mostly subscribed to beliefs consistent with modern foreign-language teaching methodology. They were unanimous in their rejection of the BALLI item, *You shouldn't say anything in the language until you can say it correctly,* and equally in the rejection of the idea that learning a foreign language was a matter of translating from English. Further, no one agreed that learning was a matter of learning vocabulary or grammar rules, even though there were some teachers who were undecided in this area. Likewise, all teachers agreed that guessing was an acceptable strategy, with only 25% being undecided. In the areas of accuracy and error correction, Kern found the most variability of responses. Although half the teachers strongly disagreed or disagreed with the traditional belief that it is important to speak with an excellent accent, only 17% agreed and 33% were undecided. In regard to error correction, a similar picture emerged.

Half the teachers felt it was not important to correct errors immediately, while 25% were in agreement and 25% were undecided. Despite the communicative orientation of the French-language program, the majority of the teachers (84%) thought it was important to practice in the language laboratory.

In a review study, Horwitz (1999) compared group modals on specific items of the BALLI and demonstrated that the beliefs about teaching and learning varied considerably based on geographical location. Horwitz reviewed eight studies from the period of 1988–1997 of learners of different foreign languages (Americans learning French, Spanish, and German; American learners and instructors of French; American learners of Japanese; Korean EFL learners, Taiwanese EFL learners, and Turkish EFL learners). Most important in this context are the results for the items addressing the language-learning process. All EFL groups agreed that vocabulary learning constituted the most important part of language learning (range of agreement from 42% to79%). The American learners disagreed (ranging from 45% to 60%) with the exception of the learners of Japanese, whereas the French instructors disagreed most strongly (92%).

Most groups disagreed that the most important part of learning a foreign language was learning the grammar (29%-81%). The Turkish learners agreed strongly (72%-80%), and the intermediate learners of Japanese agreed to a great extent (40%). The Korean learners dismissed grammar learning more strongly than any of the other students groups (61%−81%). Horwitz noted that the Korean subjects rejected the primacy of grammar learning much more strongly than the Taiwanese subjects (45% disagreement) even though they typically experienced heavily grammar-based curricula in their English

classes, thereby casting some doubt on the influence of personal experience with foreign-language learning on beliefs about learning.

The primacy of translation as a tool for learning a language varied between the different language groups. All French instructors disagreed. Most EFL students and American learners of Spanish, German, and Japanese thought that translation was the most important part of language study. For the Koreans, agreement varied from 62% to 38%, while the Taiwanese students rejected the importance of translation with 72%. Horwitz (1999) noted that the Korean and Taiwanese learners might be less traditional than expected, or that they could have already spent a lot of time studying grammar and translation but were still not proficient. Differences in belief systems of the two Korean groups were ascribed to individual and situational differences. At the time of the study, it was noted that it might be premature to consider the notion of culturally based beliefs. Differences within groups could be explained by individual differences, instructional practices, age, stage of life, and language-learning context.

Another important investigation of the attitudes and beliefs of foreign-language teachers outside the United States was conducted by Peacock (2001), who administered the BALLI to 146 English as a second language teacher trainees at the City University of Hong Kong during their first, second, and third year to investigate changes in their beliefs about language teaching. Additionally, Peacock compared their results to those of experienced teachers. Most preservice teachers held beliefs that were contradictory to tenets of communicative foreign-language teaching. Initially, 43 of 72 first-year students believed that learning a foreign language was mostly a matter of learning vocabulary, and 52 of 72 students were convinced that learning a language was a matter of learning

grammar rules. A large majority of prospective teachers thought that learning a language was a matter of translating. In contrast, 71% of those students subscribed to the belief that guessing vocabulary was an appropriate compensatory strategy, which is more congruent with modern language-teaching approaches.

Furthermore, Peacock (2001) found that these beliefs related to the foreign-language proficiency of the students. Those students who held traditional beliefs about the role of grammar and vocabulary had a significantly lower proficiency in the language than those who disagreed or were neutral. Beliefs did not change significantly over the course of the 3-year bachelor's degree program, especially the core beliefs about the role of vocabulary and grammar in language learning. Limitations due to the one-group pre/posttest design have to be noted.

Based on these results, Peacock (2001) conducted an intervention to correct the mistaken beliefs of the preservice teachers. The intervention consisted of reflection about language-learning experiences, readings, and argumentative essays about CLT. Peacock observed a change of beliefs due to the targeted intervention, but did not collect empirical evidence. At the end of the intervention, course participants were quite aware of what was expected of them. Therefore, Peacock decided not to administer the posttest again, because the scores on the BALLI would not accurately reflect the attitudes and beliefs of the participants, due to the testing effect. Peacock's study showed that beliefs about the role of grammar and vocabulary were stable, but could possibly be changed if they became a focus of the teacher-education program.

The mixed-method research of Vibulphol (2004) further illustrated the relatively traditional orientation of future English-language teachers in Thailand. Using the BALLI

for the survey part of the dissertation, Vibulphol collected 42 surveys before and after practice-teaching events in the program. The quantitative component of this one group pre/posttest design is subject to the limitations of testing, history, maturation, social desirability, and the Hawthorne effect, and therefore the results have to be interpreted with caution. Vibulphol interviewed and observed four teachers from the sample. Survey data showed that there was high agreement about the importance of culture (79%), the importance of learning vocabulary words (76%), and the importance of learning grammar (62%). The notion that translation is important for learning the foreign language was rejected by 62%, and 43% felt that learning a foreign language involved much memorization. More than half the participants were neutral or disagreed with the statement, even though the researcher noted that memorization was the prevailing learning strategy in Thailand and other Asian countries.

Traditional beliefs prevailed, such as the 100% endorsement of the statement that the foreign language should be spoken with the correct pronunciation, and 45% thought that it was important to correct students' errors immediately. However, about one third disagreed with this statement. The researcher concluded that beliefs about language learning changed in the areas of one's ability for language learning, correct pronunciation, and the importance of English for educational purposes. However, beliefs regarding the role of grammar, vocabulary, and the treatment of errors remained mostly intact. These beliefs were perceived as contrary to modern language-teaching practices and could very well filter out new contradictory information. Horwitz (1985) suggested that prospective teachers who believe that grammar and vocabulary are the most

important tasks in language learning might enact traditional language-teaching practices and suggested immediate attention to correct these beliefs.

Vibulphol (2004) emphasized that it is not clear from the survey responses how important vocabulary and grammar might be for the language-learning process and that instruction in these areas might not be at the expense of communicative activities. The researcher also classified the belief about correctness of speech as potentially detrimental to modern language pedagogy, but contended that it might be balanced by the endorsement of compensation strategies such as guessing. Only two beliefs—about pronunciation and immediate correction—have potentially negative effects that could undermine the CLT methods that are propagated by Thai teacher-education programs. Furthermore, Vibulphol observed that beliefs changed after practice teaching; that is, the importance of speaking with an excellent accent received significantly less support; prospective teachers may have learned that pronunciation is not all that matters.

A final BALLI study to be reviewed here was conducted by Mattheoudakis (2007) who collected BALLI responses of 66 prospective English-language teachers in Greece. The aim of the program was to influence the teachers to adopt a communicative, task-based approach to language teaching rather than the grammar-based translation methodology they had experienced themselves. The researcher administered the teacher-belief questionnaire on a yearly basis during the 4-year-long program. Results indicated that beliefs about language-learning aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, and the role of the teacher remained stable, whereas beliefs about the importance of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation in language learning, and beliefs about the importance of correcting beginners changed to varying degrees. Initially, 65% supported the primacy of

grammar instruction, which dropped to 46% at the end of the fourth year of study,

constituting a statistically significant change ($p = 0.01$). The support for the primacy of

vocabulary learning dropped from 81% after the first year to 48% at the end of the

program, which is statistically significant at $p = .03$. Mattheoudakis concluded that

change of beliefs is a slow and gradual process that unfolds over time and teacher-

education programs play an important role in this process. However, the validity of

Mattheoudakis' study is limited by the threats of history, maturation, and testing.

Different events outside the program might have influenced beliefs and attitudes.

Participants' responses to the BALLI were also influenced by previous test

administrations, and changes in responses might be attributed to maturity rather than to

the program.

A recent study (Rieger, 2009) cast some doubts on the construct validity and

reliability of the BALLI, adding to the criticism of the instrument by Kuntz (1996). Kuntz

pointed to severe limitations of the BALLI, because of the lack of statistical analysis to

form the themes of the instrument and the exclusive use of descriptive statistics.

Additionally, Kuntz noted that the BALLI did not address all aspects of foreign-language

learning (construct validity) and Horwitz (1985) only used students of commonly taught

languages at the University of Texas-Austin.

Similarly, Rieger (2009) critiqued the formulation of themes in the BALLI

without the use of modern statistical techniques such as principal-component analysis.

Rieger administered a translated version of the BALLI to 109 first-year bachelor's-level

English and German language majors at a university in Budapest, Hungary. The

statistical principal-component analysis established the same five components (language

aptitude, difficulty of the language, the nature of language learning, learning and

communication strategies, and motivation) as the original instrument, but of the 34 items,

only 13 loaded onto the five themes. According to Rieger, this indicates that the

remaining questions tap into a variety of different issues, and there were not enough

items in one area to constitute a different component. Horwitz (1988) acknowledged that

the items in the BALLI, "include a broad range of issues related to the nature of the

language learning process" (p. 288).

The BALLI items about the importance of vocabulary, grammar, and the

importance of translation were retained in Rieger's study (2009), because they loaded

onto the component of language-teaching/learning approaches. Rieger reported the mean

of these items as $M = 3.34$ and a standard deviation of $SD = .52$, and interpreted this as

indicating a preference of respondents toward a focus on vocabulary, grammar, and

translation. Additionally, Rieger found that this preference was influenced by the

language studied and by gender. German majors believed more than English majors that

learning vocabulary and grammar were important for language learning, and females had

a significantly higher mean ($M = 3.41$) than males ($M = 3.09$) in these areas. Rieger

suggested that this might reflect a more traditional attitude to language teaching by

German-language majors and females, but found that the small number of male

participants ($n = 23$) constituted a limitation of the study.

Farrell (1999) used a qualitative reflective-journal approach to uncover the beliefs

of 34 future English-language teachers in Singapore: "for the vast majority of

Singaporeans, English is not their mother tongue" (p. 4) and is in many cases learned as a

second or third language. Therefore, it seems that the study is of interest for this review.

In the first part of the assignment, students were to describe their English-language-learning experiences. Farrell provided examples of reflections of five undergraduates, deemed typical. Most of the students had experienced a traditional deductive approach to grammar teaching, in which the rules and examples are provided by the teacher and the students completed a large number of drills and exercises to master a particular language structure. Only one student favored an inductive approach to grammar teaching, defined as language learners discovering and formulating the grammar structure, because that was how the student had learned English in the home environment.

The second part of the assignment consisted of a detailed lesson plan for teaching grammar. Surprisingly, all of the undergraduates decided to use an inductive approach to teach grammar. Farrell (1999) attributed this decision to the students' own language-learning experiences and their belief that the inductive approach is best suited to attain proficiency in English ($n = 2$) and the learning from the course, even though the students ($n = 3$) were not fully convinced that it was the correct approach. After the teaching experience and subsequent reflection on the lesson, all students came to the conclusion that neither the inductive nor the deductive approach to grammar teaching was appropriate for all situations. Farrell concluded that the reflective assignments together with the course readings enabled these prospective teachers to question their own experiences and adapt their teaching to the needs of the students.

Burke (2006) used a qualitative case-study approach to discern what specific method preservice language teachers used during their field experiences and to what extent their methods course influenced their decisions. Participants were undergraduate and master's students in the world-languages department of a U.S. university and were

aspiring teachers of French, Spanish, German, Latin, and Russian. Information about the total number of study participants was not provided. With the exception of Latin, these languages are all taught at the DLIFLC. Preservice teachers in the study indicated that they had been taught languages through a grammar-translation approach that focused on explicit grammar instruction and translation, used memorization of vocabulary, and drills and exercises with no attempt to develop communicative abilities.

The 10-week methods course that all preservice teachers in Burke's study (2006) had attended prior to the field teaching experience emphasized the benefits of CLT. Students were given the opportunity to observe communicative lessons, received communicative lesson plans and units, and developed their own lesson plans for their teaching. Based on an analysis of the lesson plans and reflections after the teaching experience and other required course materials, the researcher developed three distinct teacher profiles, or cases, that varied mostly in their approach to teaching grammar, namely the grammar-translation teacher, the hybrid teacher, and the communicative-language teacher.

The grammar-translation and hybrid teachers were described as making a specific grammar structure the focus of a lesson, whereas it constituted merely one part of the lesson for more modern teachers, who wanted to enable students to get their point across during communicative activities. One of the so-called hybrid teachers illustrated this point, remarking that students should be "able to create and use sentences that reflect their knowledge and understanding of the grammatical concepts they have learned" (Burke, 2006, p. 155). A grammar-translation teacher might focus even more on the explanation of grammar structures than the hybrid teacher. One of Burke's study

participants, a grammar-translation teacher, was surprised when a mentor teacher criticized a lesson in which the teacher student had spent 40 minutes on a teacher-centered explanation of a grammar structure without giving students an opportunity to interact. Generally, grammar-translation and hybrid teachers talked during the lesson and students were expected to listen and answer the teacher's questions. Additionally, Burke (2006) found that grammar-translation teachers placed high emphasis on form such as correct pronunciation and use of vocabulary. Communicative and hybrid teachers also mentioned some concepts that were not addressed by grammar-translation teachers, namely student-centered activities, culture, and writing. Burke concluded that the relatively short exposure to communicative teaching during a methods course might not be enough to adjust existing beliefs about language teaching, but did not indicate how many of the teachers in the study were identified as communicative, hybrid, or grammar-translation teachers.

Watzke (2007) reported similar results based on a qualitative study that used a grounded-theory research methodology. Participants were nine beginning foreign-language teachers who submitted their journal responses to open-ended prompts over the course of the 2 years of their study in the Master of Education program at the University of Notre Dame. The program at Notre Dame was described as having a strong field component. Initially, the prospective teachers subscribed to traditional beliefs about teaching a foreign language that were mostly grounded in their own experience as foreign-language learners and characterized as "antithetical to their preservice preparation" (p. 74). They favored teacher-centered practices, vocabulary, and grammar based lessons with drills, reading aloud, translations, and the performance of memorized

dialogues. "Grammatical knowledge, and in particular, the students' poor grasp of

English grammar as an obstacle to learning, continued to be a topic of participant

reflection" (p. 71). Teachers at the DLIFLC shared those sentiments, and those

complaints resulted in the creation of a prelanguage course with a focus on English

grammar and study skills. Over the course of the program, Watzke noted an increasing

orientation toward student-centered methodology with a balance of structural and

communicative approaches reflected in the journal entries of study participants. During

the second year of teaching, one teacher of German wrote in a journal "I have now

created an expectation that we do not learn grammar for its own sake; that it [sic] going

to be used as a means to communicate, and that it is a tool" (p. 71). Watzke also observed

the use of communicative tasks such as role plays and information gaps during class

observations.

In summary, the beliefs of preservice language teachers appear to be rooted in

their own language-learning experiences, which can be characterized as traditional,

grammar-focused approaches (Burke, 2006; Farrell, 1999). The preservice language

teachers in the United States seem to hold beliefs that are more consistent with modern

language-teaching methodology (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995), whereas the preservice

teachers outside of the United States appear to hold more traditional beliefs that manifest

in their preference for explicit grammar teaching (Mattheoudakis, 2007; Peacock 2001;

Rieger, 2009; Vibulphol, 2004). This study investigated whether these findings would

apply to the foreign-born language teachers at DLIFLC.

Additionally, there seems to be evidence that language-teaching beliefs depend on

the language taught (Horwitz, 1999; Rieger, 2009) and the gender of the preservice

teacher (Rieger, 2009). Unfortunately, much of the literature about the beliefs of preservice teachers investigated only the beliefs of teachers of commonly taught languages such as French, Spanish, and German in the United States with notable exceptions of Thai (Vibulphol, 2004) and Greek (Mattheoudakis, 2007). At DLIFLC, the majority of languages taught fall into the category of less commonly taught languages such as Arabic, Korean, Persian-Farsi, Dari, and Pashto, and the current study aimed to close the research gap by investigating the beliefs of those teachers about language learning and teaching.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Restatement of the purpose

The purpose of this evaluation study was to examine the impact of the preservice teacher-education program at DLIFLC on the foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers. The preservice education program is a 4-week intensive teacher-preparation course with a strong reflective focus that addresses foreign-language teaching and learning processes.

Research Design

This study is an evaluative study with the purpose of assessing the impact of a program or an intervention, also referred to as an impact assessment (Bickman, 2005; Vogt, 2005). The research was repeated for four different iterations of the preservice program that took place during the months of January to April 2011. According to Borko (2004), this research study qualifies as a Phase 1 study that concentrates on an individual program at a single site, in this case the preservice program at DLIFLC, and seeks to understand student thinking and instructional practices. The current study used a pre/posttest design, which is the most commonly used evaluation design (Colosi & Dunifon, 2006). Research participants take a pretest at the beginning of the program and a posttest at the end of the program, and changes in beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors due to a specific program are measured (Colosi & Dunifon, 2006). This study is a preliminary one group pre/posttest evaluation of the preservice-teacher program at DLIFLC to help develop hypotheses for future research in this important area.

In the current study, research subjects answered questions about their foreign-language teaching beliefs before and after the intervention of the preservice teacher-education program, and thus a survey method was used. The survey method was chosen to obtain direct responses from preservice course participants about their views on the importance of various training techniques, the language teaching approaches they experienced as language learners, and on their beliefs about foreign-language teaching, because these beliefs are regarded as the primary basis for decision making in the classroom (Richardson, 2003). In the literature on the professional development of teachers, which includes preservice education, there is a debate about the usefulness of surveys and self-reports, because the thinking of teachers might not be congruent with their actual teaching practices. Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, and Yoon (2001) shed doubts on self-reports as reliable indicators of changed teaching practices after a professional-development event, whereas Desimone (2009) defended carefully constructed surveys that ask behavioral and descriptive questions against the assumed superiority of field observations and interviews.

The data were collected through a group administration of a self-administered paper-and-pencil survey which normally yields a high-response rate (Fowler, 2009). The researcher personally solicited participation and explained the study. Furthermore, the group administration enabled the researcher to respond to participants' questions, which was particularly important in the multicultural setting of DLIFLC, with a majority of nonnative English speakers.

This investigation used a correlational design to establish the relationship between foreign-language teaching approaches that preservice teachers experienced as language

learners and their current foreign-language teaching beliefs, as well as what relationship might exist between foreign-language teaching approaches that were experienced and transformation of beliefs due to the intervention of the preservice program. Correlational research is concerned with establishing an association between variables and the variables are not manipulated (Vogt, 2005). In other words, no treatment or intervention takes place.

It was predicted that mortality in this longitudinal study would be minimal, because the interval between administrations was limited to the 4 weeks of the preservice program. Indeed, there were only four cases of mortality, one participant terminated her employment with DLIFLC for personal reasons, and another participant, who was an administrator attending the ICC was needed in the department and did not finish the course. The other two subjects withdrew from the course due to illness.

Research Setting

The study was conducted at a government language school located in Monterey, California. The school is accredited by the Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges.

Overview of DLIFLC

According to the official DLIFLC website, language instruction in 24 languages and several dialects is provided to 3,500 students per year. Language programs vary in length from 24 to 64 weeks with six instructional hours per day. Language students have to be members of the American or foreign military forces or civilian personnel working in the federal government and various law-enforcement agencies. DLIFLC is a military

school under the command of the Army but is attended by all branches of the armed forces and reserves.

Academic leadership is provided by the Provost, which is a civilian position. The institute is organized into different schools and directorates: eight schools of undergraduate education, the Directorate of Continuing Education for nonresidents, and intermediate and advanced foreign-language studies, the Directorate of Language, Science, and Technology, and the Directorate of Research and Evaluation. The preservice teacher-education program at the Institute is conducted by the Faculty Development Division, which is part of the Directorate of Language, Science, and Technology and serves all foreign-language teachers in the undergraduate and continuing-education programs.

Of the 1,827 teachers, 98% are native speakers of the language they teach (DLIFLC, n.d.a.) and every newly hired instructor is required to attend the Institute's preservice program regardless of educational background or teaching experience. This government language school and its preservice education program were chosen because of the easy access to large numbers of foreign-born teachers whose exposure to communicative foreign-language teaching methods might be limited or nonexistent, thereby providing an opportunity to assess the impact of the program on the participants.

The Preservice Education Program

The preservice education program or ICC is a 4-week intensive teacher-preparation course with a strong reflective focus that addresses foreign-language teaching and learning processes. It emphasizes practical matters directly related to the teaching of foreign languages and accommodates incoming instructors with varying levels of

expertise, including those who have lower English proficiency, less skill with technology, little or no teaching experience, and educational backgrounds that may not lend themselves easily to the teaching standards and requirements of DLIFLC. Major objectives are:

- To promote the use of best practices in communicative foreign-language teaching.

- To recognize the main characteristics of adult-learning and language-learning processes and their relationship to methods in foreign-language education.

- To prepare teachers to make informed choices as they help students reach enhanced proficiency goals.

- To develop familiarity with technological resources at DLIFLC and their multiple uses in creating proficiency-oriented lessons.

- To plan and conduct in-school teaching sessions that demonstrate teachers' understanding of the principles of learner-centered, communicative-language instruction (DLIFLC, n.d.c.).

The ICC is normally given every month and up to 32 preservice teachers can attend the program in two parallel sections with up to 16 participants in each section. Three or four faculty-development specialists are assigned to each of the ICC sections to conduct the course based on an established curriculum. The course provides an introduction to the DLIFLC mission and foreign-language teaching in the DLIFLC context. It emphasizes DLIFLC's approach of teaching for proficiency with a focus on skill integration (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) and the Final Learning Objectives (FLOs), which are specific military skills such as transcription, translation,

and number dictation. The preservice course is hands-on and interactive; it consists of whole-class and small-group discussions, experiential activities, case studies, teaching demonstrations, microteaching events, and application of content from the workshop in the teaching context of the participants. During the 4 weeks of the course, preservice foreign-language teachers are required to schedule five different language lessons in their departments. They are observed and given feedback by a peer or a workshop facilitator, and they have a reflective journal-writing task after practice-teaching events. Additionally, one of the lessons is to be videotaped and watched by the teacher. The syllabus of the preservice program at DLIFLC is attached in Appendix A.

A typical learning cycle consists of the preservice teachers experiencing or observing a language lesson, followed by an analysis of lesson components and a critical discussion of possible applications in the teaching contexts of the course participants. The ICC curriculum and lesson plan for the teaching of grammar (Day 14 of the course), as a sample of a lesson cycle, can be found in Appendix B. After this introduction, teachers prepare a lesson plan, with the assistance and support of the course facilitators and their peers. This lesson is then taught the following day by the preservice teacher in the language department.

During the course, there are many opportunities for critical reflection. The preservice teachers are required to keep a reflective journal and have to respond to nine prompts about their own language-learning history, their observations of language lessons at DLIFLC, their own language teaching, and differences in language teaching in their home countries and at DLIFLC. Other course assignments that foster reflection and critical analysis are the presentation of an original language-learning activity and the

compilation of a portfolio that could consist of different products created in the course such as a personal teaching statement, copies of lesson plans, postteaching reflections and surveys, student questionnaires, peer observation sheets, or activity descriptions.

Population and Sample

The population of the study is defined as all foreign-language teachers enrolled in the ICC given at the DLIFLC in Monterey, CA during a 4-month period. During the time of this study, there were 103 civilian and military prospective foreign-language teachers enrolled in the course. Of these, 93 participated in the study, but due to mortality of 4 ICC participants, a total of 89 teachers submitted both the pre- and the post-ICC FLTBS.

In contrast to other junior colleges, teachers at DLIFLC have only the requirement of a 4-year college education, which does not have to include foreign-language teaching-methods courses (DLIFLC, n.d.b.). DLIFLC records (P. Taylor, personal communication, October 26, 2010) indicated that of the 1827 current faculty members, 52% hold master's degrees and 29% hold bachelor's degrees. Only 3% of the language teaching faculty is hired with an associate degree, a high-school diploma, or on a waiver. Most of the language teaching faculty (66%) have a related degree (personal communication), which is defined as a major or minor in Foreign Language Education, Teaching English As a Second/Foreign Language, Linguistics, Language (English included), Literature, Education, Educational Psychology, Educational Technology, Translation & Interpretation, Foreign Culture Studies, or Educational Administration by the Civilian Human Resources Agency (n.d.). The related degrees span a wide area and do not always include teaching of a foreign language.

Teachers are normally hired because they have a unique skill, that is, they are highly proficient in languages that are not commonly taught at other institutions of higher education such as Arabic, Pashto, Dari, Korean, and Chinese. The Academic Records office of DLIFLC reported that 208 language instructors were hired during the fiscal year 2010 (P. Taylor, personal communication, 26 Oct, 2010). Figure 1 provides the partitioning of teachers by language. However, these native-speaking teachers may not have any experience teaching those languages and the institute relies on the 4-week preservice course to prepare teachers for the language classroom.
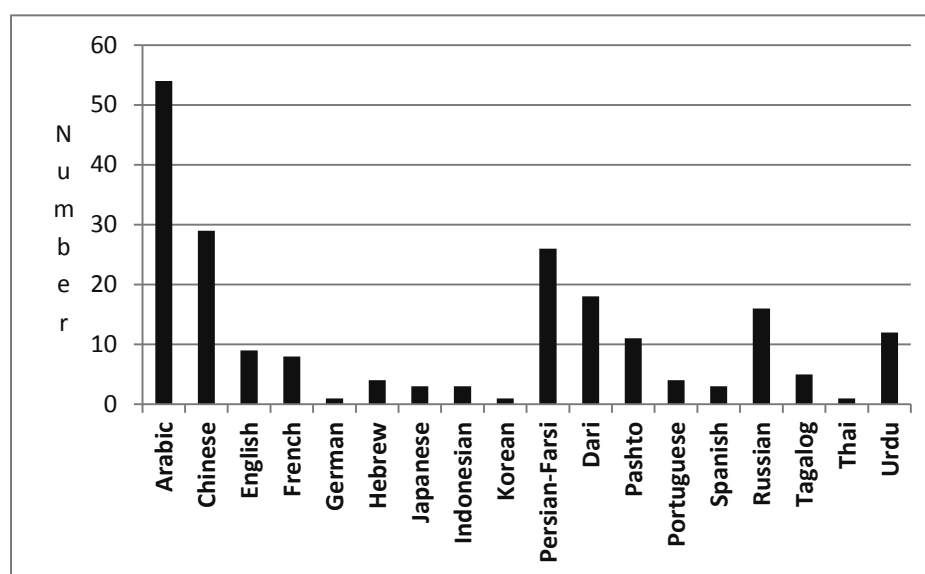
Figure 1. Languages taught by newly hired faculty at Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center in FY 2010.

Instrumentation

The researcher developed a precourse and a postcourse instrument for the present study based on the BALLI by Horwitz (1985) and The Effective Foreign Language Teacher (Bell, 2005), the FLTBS. For the FLTBS, four items from the BALLI and 20

items of Bell's survey questions were used, even though some of those were slightly

modified. The remaining 11 items were generated by the researcher. The itemization

taken from the BALLI and Bell's instruments can be found in Table 2.

The BALLI can be found in Appendix C and the items of Bell's questionnaire

study are located in Appendix D. Permissions to use these instruments were given and

can be found in Appendices E and F. The pre- and posttraining versions of the researcher-

generated FLTBS are located in Appendices G and H.

The precourse survey consists of three parts that address the foreign-language

learning experiences and foreign-language teaching beliefs of the survey takers. Part I,

which is exclusively generated by the researcher, has 10 items about various aspects of

foreign-language teaching to which the survey takers responded on a 5-point Likert-type

scale with the options of *Always = 5*, *Mostly = 4*, *Can't Remember = 0*, *Seldom = 2*, and

Never = 1. A sample item is *Did the teacher lecture about grammar rules?*

The second part of the instrument consists of 35 items about different aspects of

foreign-language teaching such as the role of the target language, error correction, the

teaching of grammar, and vocabulary. Table 3 shows the area of foreign-language

teaching and the item number.

Table 2

Items Taken from the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory and Bell Survey for the

Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey Part II

FLTBS item *	BALLI item	Bell item
1. It is best to use the target language starting with the first day of instruction.		B34 (modified)
2. In a good foreign language class, small group or pair work is used frequently.		B04 (modified)
3. It is essential to drill grammar patterns to help students achieve accuracy.	6 (modified)	
6. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.	10	
9. It's important to improve students' ability in the foreign language through practice in the lab.	16 (modified)	
13. Students' errors need to be corrected as soon as they occur.		B24
14. The effective teacher primarily uses the foreign language in the classroom.		B27
15. A good foreign language teacher knows a lot about how a foreign language is learnt.		T33 (modified)
17. Part of a class should be devoted to giving examples of cultural differences between target and native culture		B31 (modified)
18. Good foreign language instruction incorporates the use of the use of technology (i.e. Computers, Internet, Blackboard)		B46
20. Foreign language learners should be instructed in the use of learning strategies (i.e. previewing, skimming, inferring information).		B13 (modified)
21. Students learn each others' mistakes when they work in pairs.		T19 (modified)
23. When students make errors it is important to give them the rule that was violated.		B35 (modified)
24. Making the first occurrence of a new word memorable is more important than repeating it several times.		T26
25. Using small group activities is likely to reduce learner anxiety.		T06
27. Foreign language learners should be separated into groups of fast and slow learners.		T13
28. A foreign language is learned predominantly by imitating correct models of the language.		T05
29. Learning a foreign language in an immersion environment is more effective than learning it in the classroom.		T04
30. Effective teachers usually give grammar rules before they provide examples.		B45 (modified)
31. Adults learn a foreign language in a manner similar to the way they learned their first language.		T02
32. Native-like language proficiency of the teacher is more important than his/her teaching skills.		T28
33. Learners must understand every word of a text to understand what is being said in the foreign language.		T25
35. If learners are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	14	

Note. Item numbers not listed were generated by the researcher; FLTBS = Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey; BALLI = Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory

Table 3

Item Numbers and Foreign Language Teaching in Part II of the Foreign Language

Teaching Belief Survey

Foreign-language teaching area	Item number
Communicative Language Teaching	1, 14, 3, 5, 17, 19, 20, 26,29
Drills and Memorization	4, 9, 28, 34
Error Correction	10, 13, 23, 35
Adult Second Language Acquisition	31
Teaching of Grammar	7,16, 22, 30
The Foreign Language Teacher	5,11, 15, 32
Teaching of Vocabulary	6, 24, 33
The Role of Technology	18
The Role of the Language Student	12
Use of Pair and Group Work	2, 8, 21, 25, 27

Survey takers responded to the statements on a 7-point Likert-type scale with the

options of *Strongly Agree (7)*, *Agree (6)*, *Somewhat Agree (5)*, *Undecided (0)*, *Somewhat*

Disagree (3), *Disagree (2)*, and *Strongly Disagree (1)*. The researcher used a response

scale of seven options, as recommended by Krosnick and Fabrigar (1997), to obtain a

more fine-grained measurement that could detect small changes in attitudes and beliefs

about foreign-language teaching. Based on the exploratory factor analysis, items were

classified as representing communicative or traditional beliefs (see Appendix I).

Traditional items were reverse scored and all items were totaled for the communicative-

belief scale.

The third part of the questionnaire consists of 10 items requesting basic

demographic information such as gender, age, and previous teaching experience.

Following the recommendation of Orcher (2007), these demographic items were placed at the end of the survey.

The posttraining survey consisted of only one part. It had the same 35 items about foreign-language teaching beliefs as the pretraining survey with one additional item. This additional item asked survey takers to select which activities in the methods course were most influential for their current perspectives about foreign-language teaching. Survey takers were asked to rate nine different training techniques used in the ICC such as reflective journals on a 4-point scale: *Very Important (4), Moderately Important (3), Slightly Important (2),* and *Not Important (1).* Demographic information was not collected again as pre- and posttraining responses were matched with an assigned survey identification number.

Pilot Study

As the instrument for this study was researcher generated, it was necessary to conduct a pilot study to establish content and face validity and reliability. To determine validity, a validity panel of five experts in foreign-language teaching was formed, and a test–retest of the instrument yielded the reliability coefficient described below. The two original instruments [BALLI (Horwitz , 1985) and Behaviors and Attitudes of Effective Foreign Language Teachers (Bell, 2005)] were both unpublished instruments and did not report a reliability coefficient.

Validation Study

Fowler (2009) recommended six steps for the creation of new surveys, namely focus groups, development of an initial set of questions, critical review by a panel of experts, cognitive interviews, the creation of a draft instrument, and the pretesting of the

survey process. As the proposed study blended two existing instruments, focus groups to develop initial questions were not necessary.

To establish validity of the instrument created by the researcher, a validity panel of five experts in foreign-language teaching was established. The members of the panel hold advanced degrees and have extensive experience in teaching foreign languages and teacher education at DLIFLC and other institutions of higher education. An overview of the panel members' educational background and foreign-language teaching experience can be found in Appendix I. The panel members individually reviewed the survey instrument and unanimously agreed that it had good face and content validity.

To ensure clarity and consistent interpretation of survey items, Fowler (2009) recommended cognitive interviews, a method that requires participants to report aloud what they are thinking as they attempt to answer survey questions. These reports provide insight into the interpretations of survey items. This step is considered extremely important by this researcher, because the population of Bell's Effective Teacher Survey (2005), which contributed most of the items for the blended FLTBS, were in-service language teachers who might be more familiar with professional terminology than the population of preservice teachers in this study. Due to time constraints of the foreign-language instructors at DLIFLC, the researcher could only conduct two cognitive interviews of volunteer novice foreign-language instructors. Some terminology such as *realia* was unclear and there were questions about Part I of the FLTBS. Based on this feedback, the researcher provided explanations to survey takers during the administrations of the instrument.

Reliability Study

To establish reliability of the newly created FLTBS a test–retest procedure was used, which is defined as administering the survey to one group on two different occasions and correlating the scores from these two administrations (Fink, 2009).

The researcher asked 37 friends and colleagues at DLIFLC to participate in the reliability study of the FLTBS. For the pilot testing, it was not possible to have a group administration of the survey, but the researcher explained the project individually to potential volunteers. All 37 completed questionnaires were returned. The FLTBS (pre-ICC) was administered after an interval of 4 weeks, which is the length of the ICC, although no intervention took place for the pilot test. Thus, test–retest reliability could only be established for the 10 questions about the foreign-language learning experience and the 35 questions about foreign-language teaching beliefs, but not for the item *Which activities in the ICC did you find most important for your professional development as a foreign-language teacher at the DLIFLC?*

After 4 weeks, surveys were handed to the same 37 original survey takers and 32 completed surveys were returned, which equals a return rate of 86%. Orcher (2007) warned that test–retest reliability decreases as time between the test administrations increases. Orcher noted that the typical interval between test administrations was 1 week, but this researcher wanted to assure that the time lapse between survey administrations would equal the actual research study. Answers to survey questions from the two iterations were entered into SPSS and a derived score of foreign-language teaching beliefs for the first and the second administration were calculated. Missing values were replaced by using the mean of all the answers for that question. Out of the almost 3,000

data points in Part I and Part II of the FLTBS, there were only 14 missing values, which, according to Creswell (2008), is substantially below the threshold of 15% of data that could be replaced without changing the statistical results. Table 4 shows descriptive statistics of the two test administrations.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of the Pilot Test

	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Pilot 1	37	135	215	175.56	20.439
Pilot 2	32	133	218	173.75	21.015

To obtain a reliability coefficient for the two test administrations, the scores were correlated using Pearson's product moment correlation r. Results indicated a correlation of test–retest scores of $r = .85$ at the significance level of $p = .01$. Cohen (1988) views values of $r = .50$ as strong, and therefore the reliability coefficient of $r = .85$ can be interpreted as a very strong relationship between test–retest scores. The scatterplot indicated a linear relationship between test and retest scores, which means that a person receiving a high communicative score on the first administration of the survey also had a high score on the second survey administration. Additionally, Orcher (2007) recommended the reporting of test–retest and internal-consistency coefficients to show the consistency of the items over time and consistency among test items at one time. The Cronbach's alpha (α) of the pilot test was $\alpha = .86$ indicating a strong internal consistency of survey items. The FLTBS is therefore considered a reliable measure of foreign-language teaching beliefs. An item analysis of the two administrations of the pilot test revealed that all items contributed to the internal consistency of the test, and all test items

could be considered for the final data analysis. The table with the item analysis can be found in Appendix J.

Furthermore, an exploratory factor analysis of the FLTBS was conducted to determine the underlying structure of the variables. The exploratory factor analysis confirmed two factors for Part I of the FLTBS. Items b, d, e, f, g, i, and j loaded on Factor 1, which was called the "traditional teaching method," and Items a, c, and h loaded on Factor 2, which was called the "communicative teaching method." Items related to the traditional teaching method were reverse coded and all scores were added to obtain the derived score of the language teaching approach experienced. A higher score on this scale indicated a more communicative approach was experienced. Additionally, a factor analysis for the items of Part II of the FLTBS was performed. The tables with the factor loadings for Part I and Part II of the FLTBS can be found in Appendix K and L. Items loading on the traditional teaching method scale were reversely scored and the items from the two different scales were added to construct the derived score of foreign-language teaching beliefs. A higher score indicated a belief system that is more current or based on communicative foreign-language teaching methodology.

<div align="center">Data Collection</div>

After obtaining Institutional Review Board permission from DLIFLC (see Appendix M) and the University of San Francisco (see Appendix N) and piloting of the FLTBS, the researcher collected data from participants of the ICC. The ICC is an intensive foreign-language methods course that consists of 160 instructional hours that are normally given over the course of 1 month. The researcher holds a leadership position in the Faculty Development Division and sets beginning and end dates of the ICC and has

access to the course-enrollment records. Using the list of course participants, the researcher assigned a unique identifier to each course participant and transferred this identifier to the paper-and-pencil instrument, which was given to ICC participants. In the week before the start of the methods course, the researcher notified the course facilitators about the study and survey administration and obtained their agreement to administer the survey to course participants.

On the first day of the ICC, the researcher met course participants in their classroom, explained the research project to them, and obtained informed consent (see Appendix O). Afterward, the survey was distributed to the course participants who volunteered. The researcher called out the names of the course participants and handed out the precoded surveys. During the data-collection process, the researcher remained in the room to answer questions. No questions were asked. Survey takers handed the completed surveys back to the researcher, who then left the room, and the course began.

Four weeks later, on the last day of the ICC, the researcher entered the classroom just before the official end of the course and again requested volunteer participation in the research project. The researcher had prepared the coded posttraining FLTBS instrument and handed it to the volunteer participants. Upon completion and collection of the surveys, the researcher entered and analyzed the survey responses using the software program SPSS Version 19. The same process was repeated for the different groups of the four iterations of the ICC that took place during the data-collection period.

Data Analysis

In order to describe the population, demographic items from the survey instrument such as frequency distributions of gender, age, and previous teaching experience displayed in figures and tables were used.

To answer the first research question, to what extent the foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers changed after the training course, the researcher compared pre- and postintervention scores using descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, frequencies, and effect sizes. Additionally, inferential statistics were used to determine whether the change in beliefs was statistically significant. Tables and figures were used to illustrate the findings.

To answer the second research question about the relationship between the beliefs of preservice teachers and their experienced language-teaching approaches, the researcher compared scores from the first part of the questionnaire about foreign-language teaching/learning experiences with scores from the second part of the questionnaire foreign-language teaching beliefs using a Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. Additionally, several correlations between the experience scale and subscales of the FLTBS (beliefs about the role of the teacher, use of the target language, etc.) were computed.

To answer the third research question about the relationship between foreign-language teaching approaches that preservice teachers had experienced when learning a foreign language and the degree of transformation of foreign-language teaching beliefs, the researcher established a correlation between scores of the experience scale and change scores and examined the strength and relationship of that correlation.

To determine which activities of the preservice course were perceived as most influential for the views on foreign-language teaching, Research Question 4, descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations displayed in histograms and tables were used. Differences between groups based on demographic information (gender, age, and civilian or military status) were established through independent sample *t*-tests, and nonparametric Mann Whitney U and Kruskall-Wallis tests.

<div align="center">Human-Subject Protection</div>

To show respect for persons, the researcher provided full disclosure of the purpose and the process of the research study and obtained informed consent from all survey takers to assure voluntary and informed participation. It was deemed necessary to emphasize the voluntary nature of survey participation, because the population of the study was newly hired faculty members who might be considered vulnerable. They could view survey participation as a condition of employment and successful completion of the mandatory ICC. Additionally, the researcher holds a leadership position in the Faculty Development Division, where the preservice program and the research were conducted, and it was therefore particularly important not to create the impression of coercion.

Participants in this study filled out a questionnaire with basic demographic information and questions about their views on learning and beliefs about teaching foreign languages before and after the preservice program at DLIFLC. Answering these survey questions posed no known risks to the participants. A potential indirect benefit may lie in the fact that the collected data might be used to assess and make possible

improvements to the preservice program. Future iterations of the ICC may be enhanced to prepare foreign-language teachers better for the DLIFLC workplace.

In order to protect the identity of the participants, the survey was completely anonymous and confidential. Original questionnaires were kept under lock and key in the researcher's personal residence and were destroyed after the completion of the study. For this study, intact groups of foreign-language preservice teachers who were attending the preservice course at DLIFLC were used, and anyone attending the preservice course during the time of the study was invited to participate.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of the foreign-language teaching-methods course (ICC), a 4-week intensive preservice program of 160 hours, on the beliefs of preservice teachers. The researcher-generated FLTBS instrument was used to obtain data about what preservice language teachers believe about CLT methods and specifically about (a) the role of the teacher, (b) the use of the target language, (c) methods of error correction, (d) drills and memorization, (e) the teaching of grammar, (f) the teaching of vocabulary, and (g) the value of pair and group work. Data were analyzed using the methodology described in the methodology chapter. The findings of the research are presented in the following order. First, a profile of the study participants is provided, and then the findings pertaining to the research questions are presented in numerical order.

Demographics

Demographic information was collected from 93 volunteer preservice teachers who attended different iterations of the preservice course from January to April 2011. There were 4 foreign-language teachers who dropped out of the course, which resulted in 89 completed pre- and post ICC FLTBS surveys to be analyzed. There appeared to be two distinct profiles, namely the MLI and the civilian language teacher. Therefore, demographics will be reported separately for these two groups. Table 5 provides an overview of the demographic data.

Table 5

Demographics

Demographic characteristics	f/%		
	Civilian	Military	Total
Gender			
Male	35/54	19.68	54.58
Female	30/46	9/32	39.42
Age			
20–30 years	16/24	10/36	26/28
31–40 years	20/31	12/43	32/35
41–50 years	14/22	04/14	18/20
51–60 years	12/19	02/07	14/15
61–70 years	02/3		2/2
Time at DLIFLC			
> 1 month	8/13	16/57	24/26
1–3 months	32/50	7/25	39/42
4–5 months	11/17	3/11	14/15
6–8 months	4/6	1/4	5/5
9–10 months	1/2		1/1
11–12 months	2/3		2/2
< 1 year	6/9	1/4	7/8
Country of Education			
Home country	38/59	3/11*	41/46
USA	11/17	15/54	26/29
Other	2/3	2/7	4/4
Home/country/USA	10/15	5/18	15/17
Home country/other	2/3		2/2
USA/other	0/0	1/4	1/1
Previous FL teaching			
Yes	44/70	10/39	54/61
No	19/30	16/62	35/39
Country of FL teaching			
Home country	11/18	2/8*	13/15
USA	15/24	4/15	19/21
Other		2/8	2/2
Home country/USA	14/21	1/4	15/16
Home country/other	5/8		5/6
USA/other	3/5		3/3
Previous FL course work			
Yes	39/59	6/22	45/51
No	25/38	19/70	44/49
Country of FL course work			
Home country	15/23		15/33
USA	13/20	6/22	19/42
Other			
Home country/USA	8/12		9/20
Home country/other	2/3		2/4
USA/other	1/2		1/2

*Home country of foreign-born military language instructors; Note: frequency counts do not add up to 93 due to missing responses; DLIFLC = Defense language Institute Foreign Language Center; FL = foreign language.

The gender distribution was 54 males and 39 females for the total sample. For the 65 civilian teachers the gender distribution was fairly even with 35 males and 30 females; whereas, there were more than twice as many males ($n = 19$) as females ($n = 9$) in the MLI group.

The age of the civilian teachers ranged from 20 to 70 years of age, with 31% ($n = 20$) in the group of 31–40 years old and only 3% ($n = 2$) between 61–70 years old; whereas, 79% ($n = 22$) of the MLIs were between 20 and 40 years old, even though there were also two MLIs in the age group of 51–60 years. Most of the MLIs claimed the United States as their home country (61%), whereas the remaining 39% came from a variety of foreign countries, as shown in Figure 2. In the civilian population, there was more diversity in home countries. Surprisingly, 11% ($n = 7$) of the civilian language teachers claimed the United States as their home country. A cross tabulation of home country and language taught at DLIFLC showed that one teaches Russian, four teach Spanish, and two were not involved in foreign-language teaching.
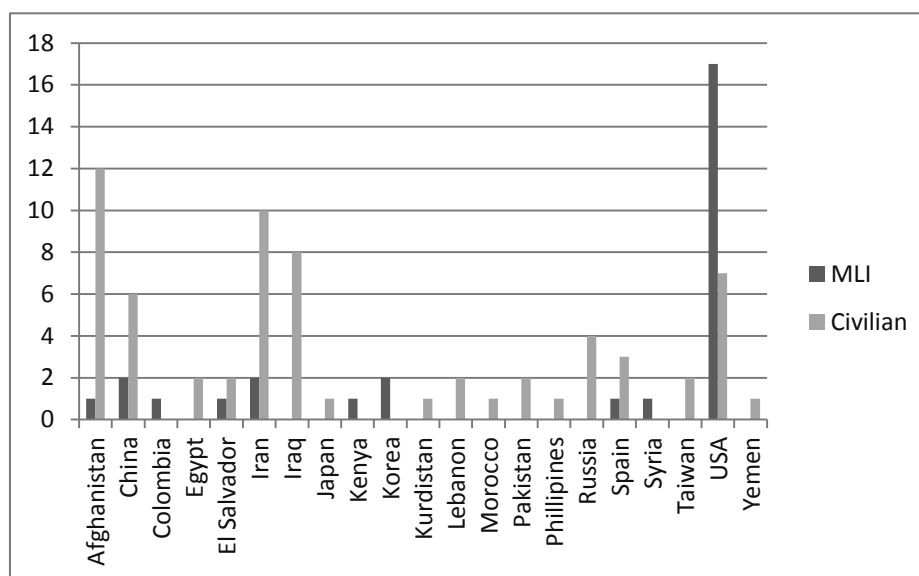
Figure 2. Home countries of civilian and military language instructors in the Instructor Certification Course during Jan–April 2011.

With the exception of those MLIs who grew up in the United States and spoke English as their native language, all of the civilian and military foreign-language teachers teach their native language at DLIFLC. Table 6 displays the languages taught by the subjects of this research study.

Table 6

Distribution of Languages Taught by Preservice Teachers in the Instructor Certification Course During January–April 2011

Language taught	*f*	%
Arabic	17	18
Chinese	13	14
Dari	10	11
French	1	1
Iraqi	1	1
Japanese	1	1
Korean	4	4
Pashto	4	4
Persian Farsi	14	15
Russian	5	5
Spanish	13	14
Tagalog	3	3
Urdu	4	4
N/A	3	3

Almost 60% of the civilian teachers reported to have been primarily educated in their home countries and had previously taken foreign-language teaching courses in their home countries ($n = 15$) and in the United States ($n = 13$). Most of the teachers ($n = 17$) had learned about foreign-language teaching in their home countries or countries outside

of the United States. A great majority of the civilian teachers (70%) reported previous foreign-language teaching experience; 15 participants reported foreign-language teaching experience in the United States (24%), and 25% ($n = 16$) had experience in their home country or another country outside the United States.

In contrast, the majority of the MLIs (62%) did not report any previous foreign-language teaching experience and 70% had not taken any previous coursework related to foreign-language teaching. The ICC was their only course in foreign-language teaching methods.

The majority of civilian ICC participants (62%) had been at DLIFLC for up to 3 months when they attended the ICC, but there were 6 teachers who had been at DLIFLC for more than 1 year before they attended the preservice course that is normally required within the first 3 months of employment. Due to understaffing in some of the language departments, civilian teachers are not always released to attend the preservice course. Civilian foreign-language teachers who had been at DLI for more than 3 months before attending the ICC were from the Chinese ($n = 6$), Arabic ($n = 6$), Spanish ($n = 1$), Persian-Farsi ($n = 7$), and Dari ($n = 2$) language departments. The majority of the MLIs (82%), however, attended the ICC within the first 3 months of their employment at DLIFLC. Only three of the MLIs, one teaching Arabic and two teaching Persian-Farsi, attended the course after 4–5 months at the DLIFLC. There were no MLIs who had been at DLIFLC longer than 6 months before they attended the ICC.

The median number of years in the United States was given as 11–15 years, but the mode was fewer than 5 years in the United States and out of the 10 foreign-born

MLIs, 4 reported having been in the United States for 16–20 years, whereas three had lived in the United States for 6–11 years.

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

The following section addresses the four research questions that guided this study in numerical order.

<div align="center">*Research Question 1*</div>

To what extent did the foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers change after the training course?

First, findings related to preservice teachers' beliefs about communicative-foreign-language teaching methods are reported. Then, findings regarding specific beliefs about (a) the role of the teacher, (b) the use of the target language, (c) methods of error correction, (d) drills and memorization, (e) the teaching of grammar, (f) the teaching of vocabulary, and (g) the value of group work are delineated.

Beliefs About Communicative Foreign-Language Teaching Methods

To answer this question, the derived scores of the FLTBS scales at the beginning and the end of the preservice program were compared. Possible communicative scores ranged from 35 to 245. A higher score indicated a higher orientation toward CLT. Table 7 displays the pre- and postscores of the eight groups who attended the four iterations of the preservice program between January and April 2011.

The groups came in with varying communicative beliefs about foreign-language teaching with average scores from $M = 135.73$ for Group V and $M = 155.67$ for Group VII. All groups increased their communicative orientation after the preservice program; the lowest average postprogram score was $M = 147.13$ for Group V and the highest was

$M = 168.78$ for Group VII. The differences in effect sizes varied from $d = .37$ for Group

II, a low moderate effect, to $d = 1.4$, a large effect for Group IV. For the whole group,

scores on the FLTBS ranged from 107 to 175 with an average score of 144 and a standard

deviation of 14.98. At the end of the preservice course, scores ranged from 125 to 195

with an average score of 154 and a standard deviation of 16.65. Figure 3 shows the

boxplot of the two scores with a distinct increase to a more communicative orientation.

Table 7

Pre-and Post Instructor Certification Course Communicative Scores and Effect Sizes

Sorted by Groups

	N	Prescore M (SD)	Postscore M (SD)	Cohen's d
Group I	15	144.20 (16.70)	154.00 (15.10)	.62
Group II	10	146.50 (14.10)	152.90 (20.10)	.37
Group III	13	144.77 (12.00)	151.62 (13.04)	.55
Group IV*	6	146.50 (7.10)	157.33 (8.60)	1.4
Group V	15	135.73 (17.00)	147.13 (14.50)	.72
Group VI	11	143.45 (13.41)	158.00 (19.60)	.87
Group VII	9	155.67 (14.40)	168.78 (19.70)	.76
Group VIII	10	137.90 (14.41)	152.40 (16.00)	.95
Total	89	143.64 (14.98)	154.40 (16.65)	.68

*ICC was conducted in half-day format per special request. The 160 Instructor Certification Course hours were spread over 8 weeks.
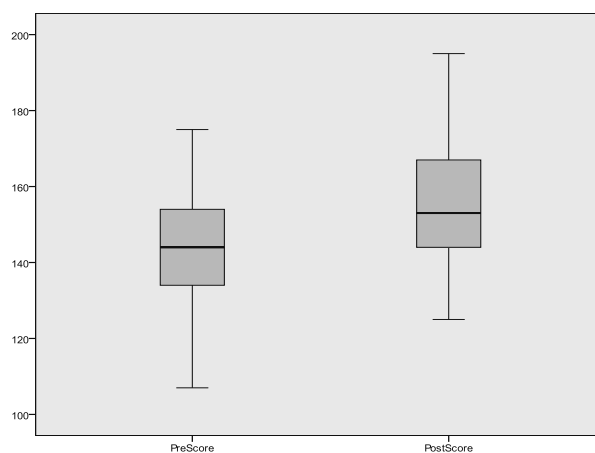
Figure 3. Boxplot of pre- and post-Instructor Certification Course communicative teaching belief score.

A paired samples *t*-test showed that there was a statistically significant increase in beliefs about foreign-language instruction that favored communicative approaches and it also confirmed that the difference between the two scores was not due to chance ($t(88) = -6.613$; $p < .001$).

It is important to note though that statistical significance indicates only that there is a difference but provides no information about the magnitude of the difference. Cohen's *d* supplies that information independent from sample size and statistical significance and is referred to as practical significance (Neill, 2008). Neill noted that statistical significance becomes important only when the goal of a study is to generalize from a sample to a population, which is not the case for this study. The interpretation of Cohen's *d* (Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008) is as follows: small effect size—.20; medium effect size—.50; large effect size—.80.

Cohen's *d* effect size for the whole group was calculated at $d = .68$, which is considered a medium-to-large effect, suggesting that the communicative orientation of

preservice teachers after the ICC was .68 standard deviations higher than before the ICC (Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008).

In order to determine whether there were any significant differences between groups in regard to changes in beliefs about CLT, a series of nonparametric tests (Kruskall-Wallis and Mann Whitney) were performed. These tests did not reveal any statistically significant differences between groups of gender, military or civilian status, age, country of origin, prior teaching experience, and prior course work, which means that the findings of this study cannot be generalized to a wider population of preservice teachers.

Descriptive statistics provided different information. Table 8 shows the average scores at the beginning and the end of the ICC and effect sizes by country group. At the beginning of the ICC, the teachers from the United States, east Asian countries (China, Korea, and Japan), as well as teachers from Slavic countries had above-average scores, which suggests that they believed more in communicative foreign-language teaching methodology than their counterparts from Arab countries (Egypt, Iraq, and Yemen), Latin American and western European countries (Columbia, Italy, and Spain), south Asia (Thailand and the Philippines), and southwest Asia (Iran, Afghanistan, and Pakistan).

Table 8

Average Scores on the Pre- and Posttest Grouped by Language Regions

Country groups	n	Pre-ICC		Post-ICC		Cohen's d
		M	SD	M	SD	
USA	21	150.05	15.01	162.67	17.54	.77
East Asian	13	149.62	10.36	155.38	13.14	.49
Slavic	5	145.60	9.86	154.40	19.85	.56
Latin America/ Western European	6	142.67	16.75	156.00	19.42	.74
South Asia	13	142.85	17.23	152.92	18.37	.57
Arabic	15	139.60	12.45	148.60	15.60	.63
Southwest Asia	16	134.50	15.22	148.81	13.58	.99
TOTAL	89	143.63	14.98	154.40	16.65	.68

Note. ICC = Instructor Certification Course.

At the end of the preservice program, teachers from the U.S., east Asian, Slavic, Latin American, and western European countries had scores that were above average, whereas teachers from Arab countries, from south Asia, and southwest Asia scored below average. The ICC participants from southwest Asian countries, who initially had the lowest scores and believed the least in CLT, changed their beliefs to a large extent ($d = .99$), whereas teachers from east Asian countries with above-average scores, who were already more in agreement with communicative foreign-language teaching methods, changed to a lesser degree ($d = .47$). The group of preservice teachers from the United States comprised mostly military language instructors. This group already had the highest communicative orientation at the beginning of the course, but still changed their beliefs to a medium-to-large extent ($d = .77$), which is above the average amount of change.

To establish differences in the extent of change of various groups in the population according to status, gender, age, previous foreign-language experience, and prior foreign-language courses, more comparisons of average pre- and postscores were conducted and effect sizes were calculated. Table 9 provides an overview of average scores and effect sizes sorted by groups.

Table 9

Average Scores on the Pre- and Posttest for Demographic Variables

Demographic variables	n	Pre-ICC		Post-ICC		Cohen's d
		M	SD	M	SD	
Status						
MLI	26	143.15	15.71	151.77	17.14	.52
Civilian	62	143.81	14.90	155.42	16.59	.73
Gender						
Male	50	142.96	14.56	153.64	17.11	.67
Female	38	144.47	15.85	155.26	16.41	.69
Age in years						
20–30	25	143.40	16.42	152.92	19.38	.53
31–40	31	140.00	12.94	151.35	13.96	.84
41–50	17	141.94	15.25	151.18	17.26	.56
51–60	13	153.62	14.50	164.77	11.32	.86
Previous FL teaching						
yes	53	142.92	15.47	153.49	16.02	.67
no	32	144.97	14.25	155.63	28.75	.47
Previous FL courses						
yes	44	143.75	16.19	155.20	17.20	.69
no	41	143.63	13.738	153.32	15.75	.66
TOTAL	89	143.63	14.98	154.40	16.65	.68

Note. ICC = Instructor Certification Course; MLI = military language instructor; FL = foreign language.

There was a weak difference ($d = .19$) between military and civilian language teachers. Apparently civilian language teachers changed their beliefs about CLT to a

somewhat greater degree than MLIs. There was only a trivial difference of effect size between genders; whereas there were medium differences between age groups. A weak effect ($d = .20$) for prior foreign-language teaching was found, whereas prior foreign-language coursework did not make a difference in magnitude of belief change.

Beliefs About the Role of the Teacher

Six items in the FLTBS addressed the beliefs about the role of the foreign-language teacher. Agreement with the three FLTBS Items 11, 30, and 32 was considered to be representative of a traditional teacher role. These items declared that foreign-language teachers should provide much information about the target language, that teachers provide rules for grammar before they allow practice, and that a teacher's native proficiency is more important than teaching skills. In this part, only findings for Items 11 and 32 are reported. Results for FLTBS Item 30 are presented in the section about beliefs about teaching grammar.

Before the ICC, most subjects agreed with the statement that teachers should provide much information about the target language ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 1.61$) and their response changed only slightly after the intervention ($M = 5.49$, $SD = 1.59$). Beliefs about the teacher's teaching skills being more important than native proficiency also did not change very much. Most teachers in the preservice program disagreed with this statement before and after the course. The average pre-ICC score was $M = 2.96$ with a wide variability ($SD = 2.14$) and at the end of the ICC, the average score dropped to $M = 2.91$ with less variability ($SD = 1.91$). These differences in scores did not reach statistical significance.

Further, FLTBS Items 5, 15, and 19, representative of more current perspectives toward the role of foreign-language teachers were examined. Most participants in the ICC came into the course with a communicative orientation. They agreed and strongly agreed with the idea that teachers should make learning fun, that teachers should know how foreign languages are acquired, and provide opportunities for students to use the language for communicative activities. Table 10 provides an overview of pre- and postscores of Items 5, 15, and 19.

The statement that opportunities for communicative activities should be provided received the strongest support with the least variation in responses, whereas it was not that uniformly accepted that teachers should have knowledge about second-language acquisition.

Table 10

The Role of the Foreign Language Teacher Before and After the Instructor Certification Course

Variable	Pre-ICC		Post-ICC	
	$n = 89$			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
5 Makes learning fun	6.54	.93	6.69	.54
15 Knows how languages are learnt	6.09	1.59	5.99	1.61
19 Opportunities for communication	6.73	.45	6.80	.43

Note. ICC = Instructor Certification Course.

Two summative scales of teacher-belief scores before and after the ICC were constructed with the items signifying a traditional teacher role reverse scored (FLTBS Items 11, 30, and 32). Therefore, higher scores signal a less traditional teacher role. Figure 4 displays the boxplot for the teacher role scale before and after the ICC.
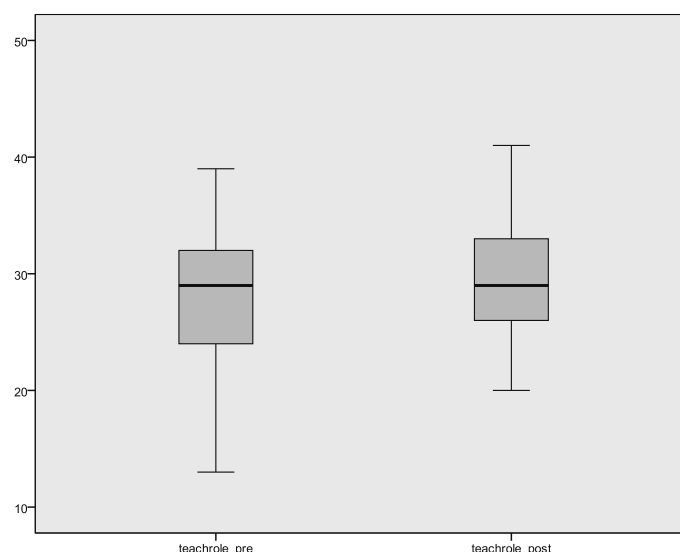
Figure 4. Boxplot for the role of the teacher before and after the Instructor Certification Course.

The boxplot indicates movement away from the traditional teacher role, with more scores above the median than before. The average post-ICC score (*M* = 29.51; *SD* = 4.40) was somewhat higher, less traditional than before the ICC (*M* = 28.42; *SD* = 4.82).

Finally, the nonparametric Wilcoxon sign test was used to determine whether the change from pre- to post-ICC was statistically significant. The results indicated a statistically significant difference, *z* = -1.969, *p* = .049 between pre and postcourse beliefs about the role of the teacher.

There were 11 ties indicating that these teachers did not change their views about the role of the teacher at all. The majority of ICC participants (*n* = 45) changed their beliefs about the teacher's role to a less traditional view; their scores increased from pretest to posttest (positive mean of ranks = 43.00), whereas 33 participants had lower scores (negative mean of ranks = 34.73) in the posttest than before, indicating that their perspectives about the teacher's role became more traditional. Overall, there was a small

change of beliefs about the role of the teacher, signified by a Cohen's *d* of .24 for the whole group of ICC participants.

Beliefs About the Use of the Target Language

Two items on the FLTBS addressed the use of the target language in the classroom: Item 1 and Item 14. The focus of Item 1 was the use of the target language from the first day of instruction, and the focus of Item 14 was the primary use of the target language. In regard to target-language use from the first day of instruction, the number of course participants agreeing with the statement decreased slightly from pre- to posttest (see Table 11). The mean for this item changed from $M = 5.49$ ($SD = 1.79$) to $M = 5.80$ ($SD = 1.38$) in the postcourse questionnaire.

In contrast, agreement about the primary use of the target language strengthened from $M = 6.27$ ($SD = 1.22$) to $M = 6.37$ ($SD = 1.35$). Initially, 3 participants disagreed with this statement and 6 agreed somewhat, but after the course the number of disagreements dropped to 1, and the number of participants only somewhat agreeing was reduced to 4. Agreement and strong agreement increased from 79 to 81 participants after the course. A summative target-language-use scale of Item 1 and Item 14 was constructed. For the pre-ICC, scores ranged from 4–14 ($M = 12.07$; $SD = 2.01$) and the post-ICC scores ranged from $3 - 14$ ($M = 11.87$; $SD = 2.89$).

Table 11

Frequency Distribution of Responses about Target Language Use Before and After the

Instructor Certification Course

	Pre-ICC		Post-ICC	
Response	*f*	%	*f*	%
strongly disagree	0	0	1	1.1
disagree	5	5.6	5	5.6
somewhat disagree	4	4.5	5	5.6
undecided	0	0	3	3.4
somewhat agree	21	23.6	17	19.1
agree	24	27.0	28	31.5
strongly agree	35	39.3	30	33.7

Note. ICC = Instructor Certification Course.

The average target-language-use score dropped slightly and the variability of responses increased greatly. The Wilcoxon sign test further revealed that 32 ICC participants did not change their beliefs about target-language use at all as their pre- and postscores were identical. Twenty-nine course participants' target-language-use scores decreased (negative sum of ranks = 30.83), whereas 28 participants' scores increased (positive sum of ranks = 27.11). The results of the Wilcoxon sign test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between pre- and posttest scores regarding the use of the target language ($z = -.542$; $p = .588$). The small effect size of $d = .09$ confirmed that the preservice course at DLIFLC did not change the beliefs of the teachers in this respect very much. Next, findings about error correction before and after the preservice program are addressed.

Beliefs About Error Correction

Four items of the FLTBS (10, 13, 23, and 35) dealt with preferred methods of error correction. Items 10 and 23 addressed explicit correction by providing the correct form or the rule that was violated; Item 13 addressed the need for immediate error correction, and Item 35 stressed the importance of correcting early and often to prevent the formation of incorrect speech patterns. Scores on the combined scale of these four items ranged from 20 to 28 in both the pre- and posttest, with a higher score indicating a stronger belief tending to more traditional, explicit forms of error correction. The average score remained almost the same before ($M = 19.78$; $SD = 4.91$) and after the ICC ($M = 19.28$; $SD = 4.40$) indicating a persistent preference for traditional error-correction methods. Figure 5 illustrates the almost unchanged distribution of scores. Cohen's *d* was calculated at *d* =.10, a small effect. The difference in scores for beliefs about error correction was found not to be statistically significant ($t(87) = 1.025$; $p = .31$).
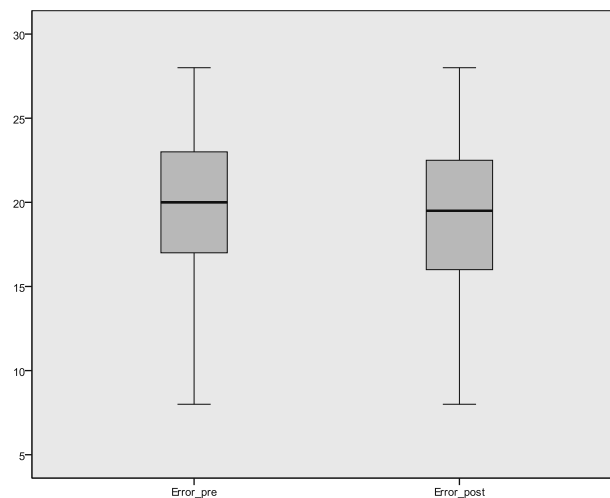
Figure 5. Boxplots of error correction scores before and after the Instructor Certification Course.

Beliefs About Drills and Memorization

       Four items assessed the beliefs of preservice teachers about drills and

memorization. One item addressed the necessity of drilling grammar patterns (FLTBS 4);

one the use of the language laboratory (FLTBS 9), which is often used for pronunciation

drills; the third item related to imitation in the foreign-language learning process (FLTBS

28), and the last item dealt with the memorization of dialogues (FLTBS 34). Figure 6

displays the frequency distributions of these four items before and after the course.
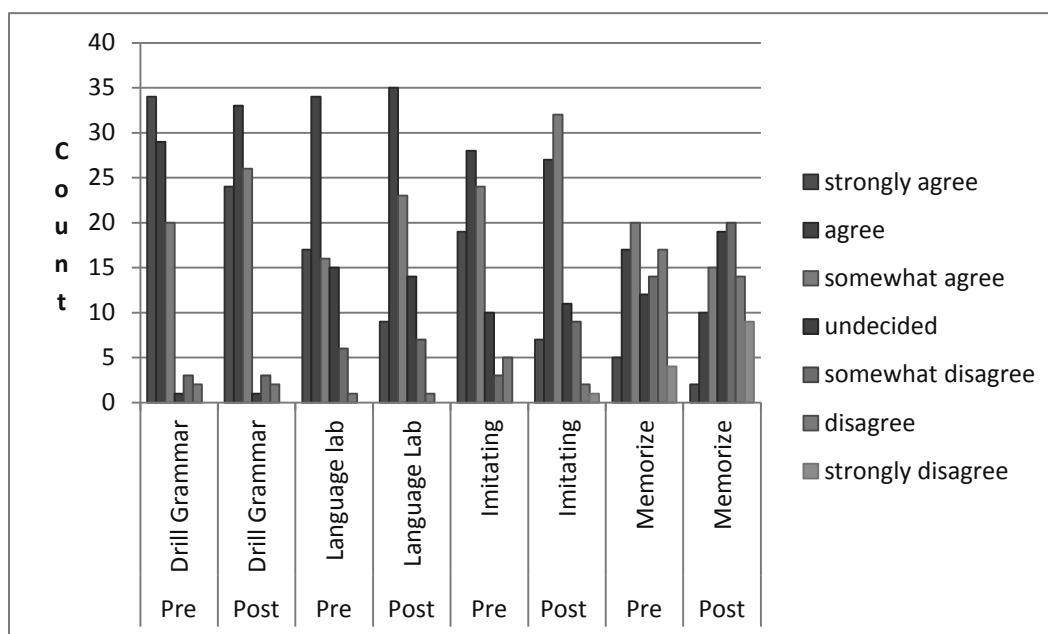
Figure 6. Frequency distributions for drill and memorization items in the Foreign
Language Teaching Belief Survey before and after the Instructor Certification Course.

       Even though there were fewer preservice teachers who agreed and strongly agreed

with the necessity of drilling grammar patterns after the ICC, overall agreement did not

change. The same holds true for agreement about the importance of practice in the

language laboratory, which did not change much at all, but the percentage of strong

agreement and agreement decreased noticeably. Agreement of varying degrees with the

notion that foreign languages are learned through imitation and memorization decreased

appreciably. The most notable shift in beliefs took place for the item *Memorizing dialogs in the foreign language increases learners' proficiency in the language*. Overall, agreement with this item decreased from 49% ($n = 42$) to 30% ($n = 22$). Table 12 shows the average scores before and after the ICC for the four FLTBS items related to drill and memorization.

Table 12

Average Scores of Items Related to Drilling and Memorization Before and After the Instructor Certification Course (N = 89)

	Pre-ICC		Post-ICC		
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	Cohen's *d*
4 Drill grammar patterns	5.90	1.30	5.72	1.25	.14
9 Practice in laboratory	4.75	2.40	4.62	2.25	.05
28 Imitation of correct models	4.94	2.16	4.53	2.08	.19
34 Memorize dialogs	3.56	2.20	2.92	1.96	.30

Note. ICC = Instructor Certification Course.

All average scores decreased after the ICC, which indicates a shift away from foreign-language teaching techniques that rely on drills and memorization. The greatest differences in means were noted for Item 28 and Item 34, namely of .42 and .64 respectively. Cohen's effect sizes varied from very small ($d = .05$) for practice in the laboratory to medium ($d = .30$) for memorizing dialogs.

The Wilcoxon sign test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in scores ($z = -2.083$, $p < .05$) for imitation of correct models and for memorizing dialogs ($z = -2.252$, $p < .05$). Complete results for the test are displayed in Table 13.

Table 13

Results of the Wilcoxon Sign Test for Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey Items

Related to Drill and Memorization

FLTBS item		N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks
4 drill grammar post- 4 drill grammar pre	Negative Ranks	27[a]	22.83	616.50
	Positive Ranks	16[b]	20.59	329.50
	Ties	46[c]		
	Total	89		
9 language laboratory post- language laboratory pre	Negative Ranks	30[d]	23.87	716.00
	Positive Ranks	20[e]	27.95	559.00
	Ties	39[f]		
	Total	89		
28 FL imitation post FL imitation pre	Negative Ranks	43[g]	30.41	1307.50
	Positive Ranks	20[h]	35.42	708.50
	Ties	26[i]		
	Total	89		
34 memorize dialogs postmemorize dialogs pre	Negative Ranks	42[j]	37.64	1581.00
	Positive Ranks	27[k]	30.89	834.00
	Ties	20[l]		
	Total	89		

Note. a. 4 drill grammar posttest < 4 drill grammar pretest; b. 4 drill grammar posttest > 4 drill grammar pretest; c. 4 drill grammar posttest = 4 drill grammar pretest; d. 9 language laboratory posttest < 9 laboratory pretest; e. 9 language laboratory posttest > 9 laboratory pretest; f. 9 language laboratory posttest = 9 laboratory pretest; g. 28 foreign-language imitation posttest < 28 FL imitation pretest; h. 28 foreign-language imitation posttest > 28 foreign-language imitation pretest; i. 28 foreign-language imitation posttest = 28 foreign-language imitation pretest; j. 34 memorize dialogs posttest < 34 memorize dialogs pretest; k. 34 memorize dialogs posttest > 34 memorize dialogs pretest; l. 34 memorize dialogs posttest= 34 memorize dialogs pretest; FLTBS = Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey.

After the ICC, the preponderant belief was no longer that foreign languages are learned through imitation and that memorization of dialogues leads to proficiency in a foreign language. The difference between pre-and posttest for the other two items about drilling grammar and language laboratory did not reach the level of statistical significance.

Beliefs About the Teaching of Grammar

Four items in the FLTBS addressed the teaching of grammar. Items 7 and 30 proposed an explicit, deductive approach to grammar teaching and isolated grammar practice; Item 16 addressed the teaching of grammar as the focus of language instruction; Item 22 dealt with the role of grammar and grammar rules in comprehension. To analyze whether there were any statistically significant differences between pre- and posttest for these items, a paired samples *t*-test was chosen. The assumption of normality of the distributions was met as skewness and did not exceed the value of 2 for all cases (Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008). Table 14 shows results of the paired samples *t*-test, and the means and standard deviations of the four items addressing the teaching of grammar for the pre- and post-ICC FLTBS.

Table 14

Paired Samples t-Test, Averages, and Standard Deviations of Responses about the Teaching of Grammar Before and After the Instructor Certification Course

Variable	Pre-ICC ($N = 89$)		Post-ICC ($N = 89$)				95% CI	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t* (88)	*p*	*LL*	*UL*
7 rules and grammar practice	4.46	2.19	3.87	1.94	2.59	.011	.14	1.05
16 primacy of system	4.85	1.81	4.00	2.08	3.40	.001	.35	1.35
22 apply rules to comprehend	4.83	1.82	4.22	1.98	2.16	.011	.15	1.07
30 deductive approach	4.09	2.26	3.49	2.21	2.11	.038	.03	1.16

Note. ICC = Instructor Certification Course.

After the ICC, agreement with traditional grammar teaching that emphasizes rules and isolated practice weakened considerably. All average scores decreased after the ICC and the paired-samples *t*-test showed that the difference in pre- and posttest responses was statistically significant for all four items addressing the beliefs about the teaching of

grammar. Participants in the ICC experienced a transformation of beliefs, abandoning their previously held beliefs of traditional, grammar-based foreign-language instruction.

A summed grammar-belief scale was constructed using the four items about grammar teaching. The range of scores was 25, from 3 to 28 points for both the pretest and the posttest. A higher score indicates more traditional beliefs about the teaching of grammar. The average score was $M = 18.24$ ($SD = 5.30$) in the pretest and $M = 15.59$ ($SD = 5.78$) in the posttest. The paired-samples t-test indicated that the difference between scores was statistically significant ($t(88) = 4.76$; $p > .001$). Cohen's d was calculated at $d = .48$, which is a moderate effect and shows that beliefs about grammar teaching had changed to a moderate extent.

Beliefs About the Teaching of Vocabulary

Three items in the FLTBS referred to the teaching of vocabulary. Item 6 addressed guessing of vocabulary as a compensatory strategy, whereas Item 33 relates to the opposite concept, namely that a learner must know and understand every word to understand a foreign-language text. Item 24 is associated with teaching vocabulary by making it memorable rather than by repeating the lexical item, but only findings about the former two items are reported here. Table 15 displays the frequency distribution for FLTBS Item 6. Even before the ICC, agreement with the statement that guessing vocabulary is an accepted learning strategy was high. Almost 80% of all course participants agreed to varying degrees, and only 18% disagreed. After the ICC, disagreement dropped to 13% and agreement was at 87%. Similarly, the average score increased from $M = 5.15$ ($SD = 2.01$) before the ICC to $M = 5.65$ ($SD = 1.76$) after the

ICC, a weak to medium effect of $d = .26$. A Wilcoxon sign test confirmed that the difference in scores was statistically significant ($z = .284$, $p < .05$).

In comparison, responses to Item 33, which declared that every vocabulary item had to be known, are almost the mirror image to Item 6 responses. Table 16 shows the frequency distribution for FLTBS Item 33 before and after the ICC. Although 73% of the participants disagreed with the statement even before the ICC, this percentage increased to 77% after the ICC. Agreement dropped from 18% pre-ICC to 12% post-ICC. The Wilcoxon sign test confirmed that there was a statistically significant difference in scores ($z = -.3.885$, $p < .001$). With respect to vocabulary it appears that teachers who took the ICC were changing their traditional beliefs in favor of more current communicative beliefs about foreign-language learning and teaching (Cohen's $d = -.36$).

Table 15

Frequency Distribution of Responses to Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey Item 6

	Pre-ICC		Post-ICC	
Responses	f	% *	f	%
strongly disagree	8	9	5	6
disagree	4	5	6	7
somewhat disagree	4	5	1	1
undecided	2	2	0	0
somewhat agree	20	23	16	18
agree	26	29	24	27
strongly agree	25	28	37	42

Note. *percentages are rounded and do not add to 100; ICC = Instructor Certification Course.

Table 16

Frequency Distribution of Responses to Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey Item

33

	Pre-ICC		Post-ICC	
Responses	*f*	%*	*f*	%
strongly disagree	13	15	24	27
disagree	32	36	37	42
somewhat disagree	27	30	16	18
undecided	1	1	1	1
somewhat agree	5	6	7	8
agree	8	9	3	3
strongly agree	3	3	1	1

Note. *percentages are rounded and do not add to 100; ICC = Instructor Certification Course.

A vocabulary-change scale was constructed that was the difference between the summed items of 6 and 33 (reverse scored) before and after the ICC. A higher change score indicates more change toward communicative beliefs. The vocabulary-change scale ranged from -4 to 8 and the average change score was $M = 1.00$ ($SD = 2.10$). Cohen's *d* was calculated at .36, a medium effect, which shows that beliefs about vocabulary changed to a moderate extent.

Beliefs About Group Work

Group work is a technique that is used in CLT to increase opportunities for language learners to maximize interaction and use of the target language. In the FLTBS, four items are devoted to that topic. Items 2 and 25 express a positive view toward group work as an effective technique and the potential to reduce learner anxiety; whereas Items 8 and 21 state a negative view. The latter two items declare group work as ineffective and

warn of the possibility of students learning mistakes from each other. Figure 7 displays

the boxplot of views towards group work before and after the ICC.
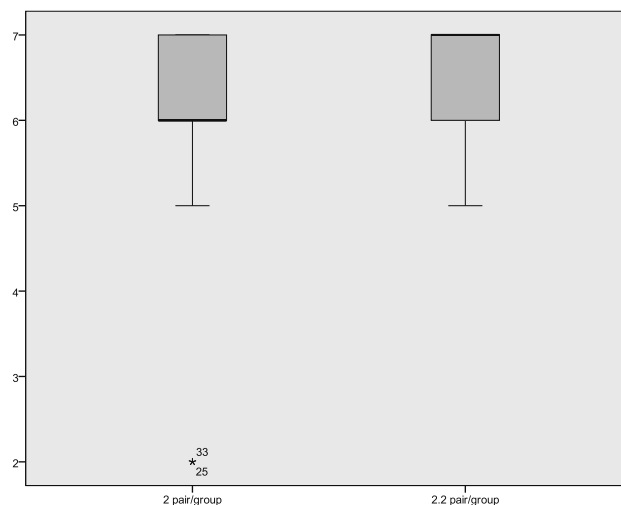
Figure 7. Boxplot of means for Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey Item 2.

It is evident that even at the beginning of the ICC, there was agreement about the

effectiveness of group work except for two outliers who disagreed. By the end of the

ICC, there was total agreement from all participants about group work and the two

participants who had initially disagreed had changed their views about the value of group

work.

Parallel to that, 18% of preservice teachers initially agreed with the statement that

group work was not an effective use of class time, but by the end of the course, the

percentage had dropped to 8%. Before the course, 90% of the participants were

concerned that learners might learn mistakes from each other; at the end of the course

there were still 80% who agreed with this mistaken notion. Figure 8 displays frequency

pre- and post-ICC distributions for Item 21 before and after the ICC.
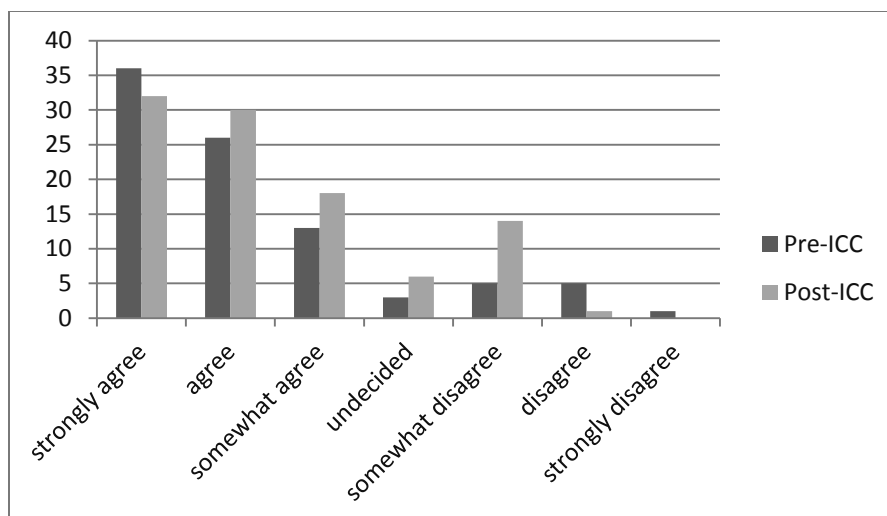
Figure 8. Frequency distribution of responses to Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey Item 21 before and after the Instructor Certification Course.

There were several changes in opinion about the danger of students learning each other's mistakes in group work. Most notably, strong agreement decreased from 40% to 32%, while disagreement increased from 13% to 15%. Overall, the average response score decreased from $M = 5.61$ ($SD = 1.83$) pre-ICC to $M = 5.35$ ($SD = 1.88$) post-ICC, which indicates a slight movement to a more informed view about this issue.

Finally, a group-work score combining Items 2, 25, and 8, 21 (reverse coded) was computed for the pretest and the posttest. Before the ICC, group-work scores ranged from 11 to 25 and after the ICC the range was from 8 to 26. A higher score indicates a positive view toward group work as an effective teaching strategy in foreign-language classes. A comparison of average scores before the ICC ($M = 18.85$; $SD = 3.03$) and after the ICC ($M = 19.54$; $SD = 3.13$, $t(88) = -2.15$, $p < .001$) showed that the difference in pre- and posttest scores for group work was statistically significant and the effect size Cohen's d was .22, which indicates a small to medium effect.

Summary

Overall, course participants changed their beliefs about CLT to a considerable extent (Cohen's *d* = .68), which was statistically significant. For most subcategories, statistically significant changes from pre- to post-ICC scores were noted. The only exceptions were the beliefs about the use of the target language and about error correction. No statistically significant changes were found.

Beliefs about the role of the teacher changed only somewhat (Cohen's *d* = .24), and the same holds true for beliefs about memorization of dialogs and imitation of correct models (Cohen's *d* = .26), and the beliefs about group work (Cohen's *d* = *.22).* The most drastic change occurred in the beliefs about teaching grammar. Cohen's *d* of .48 indicates a moderate effect, followed by a change of beliefs about vocabulary (Cohen's *d* = -.36), which indicates a small to moderate change toward more currently accepted approaches to foreign-language teaching.

Descriptive statistics consistently showed various degrees of change between country groups with a moderate effect size that was, however, not statistically significant. None of the demographic variables were correlated at a statistically significant level to the beliefs about foreign-language teaching before and after the preservice program at the DLIFLC.

<div align="center">*Research Question 2*</div>

What is the relationship between the beliefs of the preservice teachers at the beginning of the preservice program and the teaching approaches they experienced as foreign-language learners?

To determine the relationship between the beliefs of preservice teachers and the teaching approaches they experienced as foreign-language learners, several Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were computed. Initially, the responses to Questions a–j of the FLTBS Part I were converted into an experience scale (LearnExperience) with the items indicating a traditional approach to foreign-language teaching (b, d, e, f, g, i, and j) reverse scored. The range of scores was 27, from 11 to 38. A higher score indicates that a more communicative-teaching method was experienced. Figure 9 displays the distribution of learning-experience scores in a histogram.
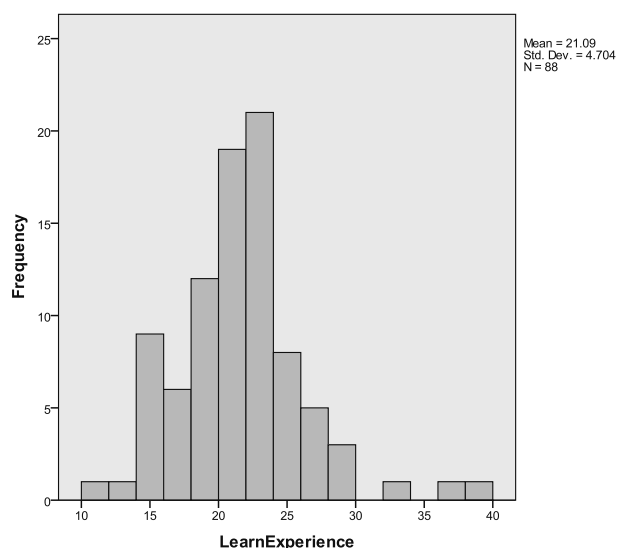
Figure 9. Histogram of foreign-language-learning experience scores.

Clearly, most preservice teachers experienced a more traditional approach to foreign-language teaching. Three cases could be considered outliers. They had a very different language-learning experience than the rest of the group with scores that were more than 2 *SD* above the group mean. The association between the two variables of foreign-language teaching beliefs and foreign-language teaching approaches was calculated at $r = .014$ ($p = .90$), which indicates that there was no relationship.

Next, Pearson product moment correlations for individual items on the FLTBS Part I and pre-ICC program beliefs were calculated. Table 17 displays the statistically significant correlations between teaching methods experienced and foreign-language teaching beliefs. The belief that proficiency in a foreign language is reached by working hard and following instructions is consistently negatively correlated to all items of the teaching approach experienced. The correlation between the variable of hard work and group/pairwork, the teacher as authority figure, having been exposed to realia, and grammar lectures in class during the foreign-language-learning experience was $r(87) = -.36$. The correlation between the variable of hard work and memorizing vocabulary lists, doing verb conjugations, having errors corrected by reciting the rule, doing role plays, spending most of the class time on the language system, and doing drills was $r(87) = -.50$. It appears that this belief is linked simultaneously to having experienced traditional and modern foreign-language teaching approaches as a learner.

Table 17

Correlations Between Language Teaching Approach Experienced and Selected Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey

Items

	Group/pair	Teacher authority	Realia	Vocabulary memorization	Grammar lecture	Verb conjugation	Rule error	Role plays	Language system	Drills
Guess vocab	-.24*	-.24*	-.24*							
Hard work	-.36**	-.36**	-.36**	-.50**	-.36**	-.50**	-.50**	-.50**	-.50**	-.50**
Adult SLA	.23*	.23*	.23*							
Imitation				-.25*		-.25*	-.25*	-.25*	-.25*	-.25*
Know vocab				.21*		.21*	.21*	.21*	.21*	.21*

Note. * significant at $p < .001$; ** significant at $p < .05$; SLA = second-language acquisition

Following are additional findings about foreign language teaching beliefs and the approaches that had been experienced as language learners.

- The belief that foreign languages are learned by imitating correct models correlates negatively to most traditional foreign-language approaches such as memorizing lists of vocabulary, having to conjugate verbs in class, and doing repetition drills ($r(87) = -.25$, $p = .02$).

- The belief that every vocabulary item has to be understood for comprehension correlates positively ($r(89) = .21$, $p = .05$) to all traditional teaching approaches and the communicative approach of doing role plays in class.

- Moreover, the notion that guessing vocabulary is a useful strategy for foreign-language learning is negatively associated with having experienced the teacher as authority figure, with pair and group work in class, and having been exposed to realia from the target culture ($r(87) = -.24$, $p = .02$).

- Finally, the mistaken notion that first- and second-language acquisition are identical is correlated to group work, the teacher as authority figure, and realia in the classroom ($r(87) = .23$, $p = .03$).

In summary, these results suggest that the teaching approach that had been experienced was not related to current foreign language teaching beliefs.

Research Question 3

What is the relationship between the foreign-language teaching approaches that preservice teachers experienced as foreign-language learners and the degree of transformation of foreign-language teaching beliefs?

To answer this research question, the variable of learning experience was correlated to the change scale, the difference between pre and post-ICC belief scores. The range of the belief-change scale was 84, from -38 to 46. The mean change score was $M = 10.78$ ($SD = 16.10$). Table 18 displays the descriptive statistics of the change scores.

Table 18

Change Scores of Instructor Certification Course Participants

Change score	f	%
Minus 38–0	26	29
1.00–8.00	18	20
9.00–22.00	23	26
23. 00–46.00	21	24*

Note. *percentages do not add up to 100 due to rounding

Evidently, most ICC participants altered their beliefs about foreign-language teaching to a more communicative approach, but 29% of all scores remained the same or decreased, which suggests no transformation or reorientation to traditional foreign-language teaching methods. There was one participant whose scores declined by more than 2 standard deviations from the mean. This outlier was removed from the dataset to achieve normal distribution of data.

Next, a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient for learning experience and belief change was calculated at $r(86) = .002, p = .982$, indicating that there was no relationship between the two variables. The same held true for correlations between learning experiences and transformation of beliefs about the use of the target language, the teacher role, drills and memorization, grammar, error correction, group work, and vocabulary. Evidently, there is no relationship between foreign-language-teaching approaches experienced and change of beliefs about foreign-language teaching.

Research Question 4

Which parts of the training course did the preservice teachers perceive as most influential in transforming their foreign-language teaching beliefs?

To answer this question, course participants indicated the relative importance of a specific training technique for their current foreign language teaching beliefs on a Likert-type scale with a range of 1–4. The response choices were *Very Important* (= 4), *Moderately Important* (= 3), *Slightly Important (= 2), Not Important (= 1)*. Table 19 displays the participants' importance ratings for the training techniques in the ICC.

Overall, most training techniques in the ICC were seen as important for the beliefs of the course participants. Lesson planning, practice teaching, and teaching demonstrations had most of the responses in the very important and moderately important categories. Moreover, no one thought that teaching demonstrations, lesson planning, practice teaching, and feedback were not important at all. Reflective journals and videotaping, however, were considered not important or only slightly important by 32% and 27% of the course participants, respectively, followed by 26% in the not important or only slightly important category for reading articles about foreign-language teaching.

Table 19

Importance Ratings of Instructor Certification Course Training Techniques

Training technique	Not important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Very important
			f /%	
Observation	2/2	8/9	33/37	46/52
Teaching Demonstrations		2/2	24/27	63/71
Readings	2/2	21/24	37/42	29/33
Discussions	1/1	1/1	26/29	61/69
Reflective Journals	10/11	18/20	31/35	30/34
Lesson Planning			12/14	77/87
Practice Teaching		2/2	21/24	66/74
Feedback		1/1	30/34	58/65
Videotaping	5/6	19/21	32/36	33/37

Note: Percentages do not add to 100 due to rounding

The analysis of means and standard deviations for the training techniques and their relative importance for beliefs about foreign-language teaching (see Table 20) confirms that lesson planning, practice teaching, and teaching demonstrations were viewed as most important, whereas readings, videotaping, and reflective journals were considered least important.

The standard deviations reveal that there was more agreement in the group about lesson planning, practice teaching, and teaching demonstrations compared to more disagreement for the three least important techniques of readings, videotaping, and reflective journals. These nominations clearly indicate that ICC participants attributed a higher importance to the hands-on, practical aspects of teaching than readings, discussions, and the writing of reflective journals.

Table 20

Perceived Importance of Training Techniques Rank-Ordered by Means

Training technique	*M*	*SD*	Skew
Lesson Planning	3.87	.34	-2.18
Practice Teaching	3.72	.50	-1.54
Teaching Demonstrations	3.69	.51	-1.09
Discussions	3.65	.57	-1.78
Feedback	3.64	.51	-.86
Observation	3.38	.75	-1.09
Readings	3.04	.81	-.35
Videotaping	3.04	.90	-5.63
Reflective Journals	2.91	1.00	-.52

To determine whether there were any variances in the perceived importance of training techniques in the ICC between different groups, a variety of statistical tests was conducted. There were no differences between males and females in their perception of importance of training techniques. Except for the areas of observation and reflective journals, there were no significant differences between the age groups in terms of the perceived importance of training techniques in the ICC. The Kruskall-Wallis test yielded a Chi-square coefficient of 10.00 ($p = .04$) for observation and 10.92 ($p = .037$) for reflective journals, which indicates that there were statistically significant differences between age groups for those two items.

Figure 10 shows the responses to the questions about the importance of training techniques grouped by civilian and MLIs.
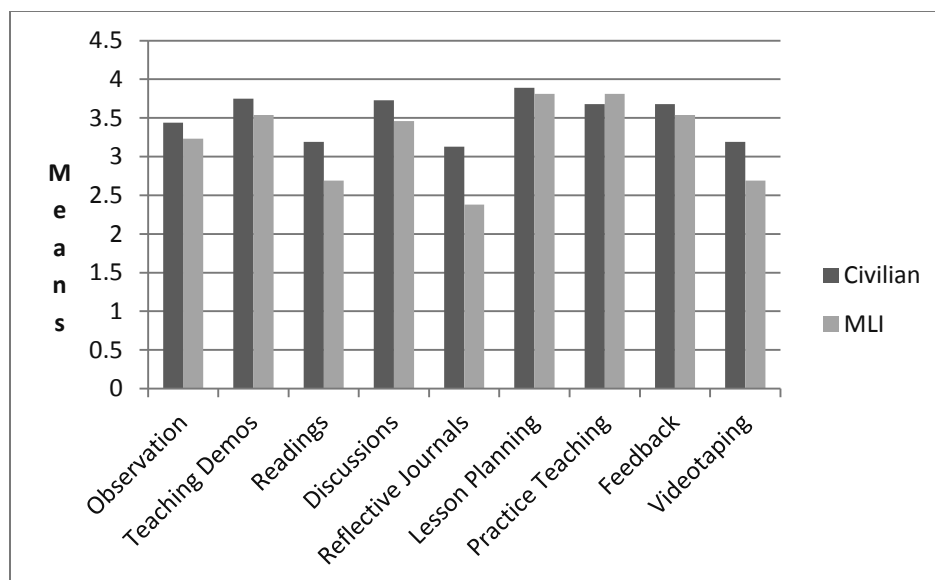
Figure 10. Average scores of importance of training techniques by military language instructors and civilian preservice teachers.

A visual inspection of the data shows that with the exception of practice teaching, the means of MLIs are consistently lower than those of civilian foreign-language instructors. MLIs considered lesson planning and practice teaching as most influential for their foreign-language teaching beliefs, whereas readings, reflective journals, and videotaping were not viewed as important at all. To determine differences in perceived importance of ICC training techniques between military and civilian language instructors, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. Table 21 displays the results of this test.

These results illustrate that there is a significant difference between the two groups with respect to teaching demonstrations, class discussions, reading professional literature, writing reflective journals, and videotaping. On average, civilian language instructors found these activities in the ICC more important than their military counterparts, who valued practice teaching more than the civilian teachers. No statistically significant difference between the groups regarding the influence of observations of other teachers, lesson planning, practice teaching, and feedback could be

found. Cohen's *d*, however, indicates that differences between the groups of MLIs and civilian foreign-language teachers range from small effects (*d* = .22) to large effects (*d* = .78). Readings, class discussions, and writing reflective journals are normally performed in English, and thus depend on English-language proficiency. To determine whether English-language proficiency played a role in the evaluation of ICC training activities further data analysis was conducted. Table 22 provides the cross tabulation of English as a native language and civilian and MLIs.

Table 21

Perceived Importance of Training Techniques for Military and Civilian Language Teachers

Training technique	Civilian (*n* = 63) *M (SD)*	MLIs (*n* = 27) *M (SD)*	*t*(87)	*p*	95% CI LL	UL	*d*
Observation	3.44 (.76)	3.23 (.71)	1.23	.22	-.13	.56	.29
Teaching demos	3.75 (.51)	3.54 (.51)	**1.75**	.08	-.03	.44	.41
Readings	3.19 (.82)	2.69 (.68)	**2.73**	.008	.14	.86	.66
Discussions	3.73 (.48)	3.46 (.71)	**1.78**	.08	-.04	.58	.45
Reflective Journals	3.13 (.91)	2.38 (1.02)	**3.38**	.001	.31	1.18	.78
Lesson Planning	3.89 (.32)	3.81 (.40)	1.02	.31	-.08	.24	.22
Practice Teaching	3.68 (.53)	3.81 (.40)	-1.21	.232	-.33	.08	-.36
Feedback	3.68 (.50)	3.54 (.51)	1.23	.223	-.09	.38	.27
Videotaping	3.19 (.82)	2.69 (1.01)	**2.43**	.017	.09	.91	.54

Note. Statistically significant *t* values in bold, *p* < 0.5); MLI = military language instructor; CI = confidence interval.

Table 22

Frequency Count of English as Native Language for Military and Civilian Language

Teachers

		f		
		Civilian language instructor	Military language instructor	Total
English	no	60	14	74
	yes	3	12	15
Total		63	26	89

It is evident that almost all civilian language teachers and even more than half of

the MLIs speak a native language other than English. To determine whether there is a

difference in the perceived importance of ICC training techniques based on whether

English is the native language, a nonparametric Mann-Whitney-U test was performed.

Results of this test can be found in Table 23. The nonparametric test was chosen because

of the uneven sample size of the two groups. The mean ranks for the nonnative English

group are higher in all areas except lesson planning and practice teaching, suggesting that

nonnative English speakers found almost all ICC techniques more important than the

native English group, who believed that lesson planning and practice teaching were the

most important aspects of the ICC. The Mann-Whitney-U test affirmed that there are

statistically significant differences between the two groups of English native speakers and

nonnative speakers in regard to their perceptions of ICC. Membership in the group of

nonnative English speakers predisposes to ascribe higher importance to observation,

teaching demonstrations, readings, discussions, reflective journals, and videotaping than

the native speaker group.

Table 23

Perceived Importance of Instructor Certification Course Training Techniques Based on

English Native Language

Training technique	English Nonnative ($n = 74$)		English native ($n = 15$)		Mann-Whitney -U	p	d
	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	Mean rank	Sum of ranks			
Observation	47.34	3503.50	33.43	501.50	**381.500**	.035	.52
Teaching demos	47.66	3526.50	31.90	478.50	**358.500**	.006	.67
Readings	47.28	3498.50	33.77	506.50	**386.500**	.049	.59
Discussions	47.06	3482.50	34.83	522.50	**402.500**	.039	.57
Reflective Journals	49.46	3660.00	23.00	345.00	**225.000**	.000	1.23
Lesson Planning	44.99	3329.00	45.07	676.00	554.000	.985	.03
Practice Teaching	43.26	3201.00	53.60	804.00	426.000	.063	.60
Feedback	45.43	3201.00	42.90	804.00	523.500	.677	.01
Videotaping	47.93	3361.50	30.53	643.50	**338.000**	.012	.75

Grouping Variable: English native; Statistically significant values at $p < .05$ in bold.

For the next analysis, ICC participants were placed in the two groups of educated in the United States or not. Most of the subjects ($n = 62$) were educated outside of the United States and 24 were educated exclusively in the United States. On average, the group not educated in the United States attributed more importance to almost all training techniques in the ICC than the group educated in the United States. Lesson planning and practice teaching were the only two techniques that had higher averages for the group educated in the United States. It appears that the group educated in the United States believed that practice teaching, together with the preparation for teaching, that is, lesson planning, were the most important factors for their preparation as teachers. A Mann-Whitney-U test resulted in significant differences between the two groups for the

importance of observation (U = 555; p = .038), readings (U = 491, p = .009), discussions (U = 508, p = .005), reflective journals (U = 775, p = .007), practice teaching (U = 564, p = .022), and videotaping (U = 489.5, p = .009).

An analysis of perceived importance of the different ICC activities grouped by whether a subject had taken foreign-language courses prior to attending the ICC was performed next. Average importance for all training techniques in the ICC was higher in the group with prior foreign-language teaching coursework with the exception of practice teaching (see Table 24).

Table 24

Average Importance of Instructor Certification Course Training Techniques Divided into Groups of Prior and No Prior Foreign-Language Teaching Courses

	Prior FL teaching courses		
	Yes (N = 44)	No (N = 42)	
Training technique	M (SD)	M (SD)	d
Observation	3.43 (.76)	3.38 (.73)	.07
Teaching demos	3.70 (.46)	3.67 (.57)	.06
Readings	3.11 (.84)	3.00 (.80)	.13
Discussions	3.73 (.45)	3.57 (.67)	.28
Reflective Journals	2.95 (1.08)	2.90 (.88)	.05
Lesson Planning	3.93 (.26)	3.81 (.40)	.36
Practice Teaching	3.68 (.56)	3.76 (.43)	.16
Feedback	3.68 (.52)	3.60 (.50)	.15
Videotaping	3.05 (.86)	3.05 (.96)	0.00

Note. FL = foreign language.

More than 60% of all the participants in the ICC reported some previous foreign-language teaching experience (n = 54) compared to 32 participants without prior teaching

experience. The majority of course participants reported teaching experience in the United States ($n = 19$), or a combination of experience in the United States and the home country ($n = 15$); only 9 subjects had taught only in their home country. As in the previous analysis, on average the importance of ICC training techniques was evaluated higher by those teachers who already had taught foreign languages before the course than by those who had not. There were no statistically significant differences between the two groups. In summary, the sample of ICC participants consistently evaluated practical activities such as lesson planning and practice teaching higher than activities removed from the actual classroom such as readings and discussions. Videotaping of practice-teaching lessons with the subsequent self-evaluation of the lesson as well as reflective journals was uniformly rated least important for professional development of the foreign-language teacher. Gender, age, previous foreign-language-teaching coursework, as well as previous teaching experience did not play a role in the evaluation of ICC course activities; whereas, military status, native English proficiency, and education in the United States were found to be important factors that influenced views about the ICC.

Summary of Major Findings

This study found that foreign-language teachers taking the preservice course at the DLIFLC might have had a substantial change of foreign-language teaching beliefs. Overall, the beliefs about CLT had increased by $d = .68$; whereas, beliefs in the different subcategories were transformed to varying degrees. Beliefs about the teaching of grammar changed most ($d = .48$), but beliefs about the use of the target language and error correction remained virtually unchanged.

No statistically significant relationship between foreign-language teaching beliefs and foreign-language teaching approaches the preservice teachers had experienced as foreign-language learners was found. Additionally, there was no statistically significant relationship between foreign-language teaching approaches that had been experienced and the extent of transformation of beliefs.

Finally, the findings in regard to the question of which parts of the course were considered most influential for their current beliefs; course participants preferred practical activities directly related to the classroom such as lesson planning, practice teaching, and teaching demonstrations. These activities were valued more than reading of professional literature, videotaping and evaluating one's own teaching, and writing reflective journals, which were regarded as less influential for current perspectives about foreign-language teaching.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this pre/posttest design evaluation study was to examine the transformative effects of the preservice teacher education program at DLIFLC on the foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers. The study focused on beliefs because they are considered the basis for action and decision-making in the classroom (Richardson, 2003).

Most studies investigated the beliefs of language teachers of commonly taught languages such as English as a second or foreign language, French, German, and Russian (Burke, 2006; Farrell 1999, 2009; Peacock, 2001; Rieger, 2009; Watzke, 2007). Only Mattheoudakis (2007) and Vibulphol (2004) researched beliefs and belief changes of preservice language teachers outside of the United States. To close the research gap, this study investigated the beliefs of foreign-language teachers of less commonly taught languages in the United States who are also native speakers of the languages they teach.

The study was guided by four research questions. Research Question 1 investigated the extent of belief change of preservice teachers after the ICC given at the DLIFLC. The second research question studied the relationship between the beliefs of the preservice teachers and the teaching approaches they had experienced as foreign-language learners. Research Question 3 examined the relationship between foreign-language teaching approaches that were experienced when learning a foreign language and the degree of transformation of foreign-language teaching beliefs. Finally, the

perceptions of the teachers about which activities in the ICC were most influential for their current foreign-language teaching beliefs were considered in Research Question 4.

To obtain answers to these questions, the researcher blended two instruments and added items about the foreign-language learning experience and the evaluation of preservice program activities. This instrument was piloted and a test–retest reliability of $r = .85$ was achieved. Eighty-nine course participants completed the paper-and pencil survey in a group administration at the beginning and at the end of the 4-week ICC given at DLIFLC. The collected data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. This study found that the beliefs of foreign-language teachers changed at a statistically significant level after the preservice course. No relationship between the two variables of foreign-language teaching approaches that had been experienced when learning a foreign language and foreign-language teaching beliefs or foreign-language teaching approaches experienced, and the level of change was found. Teachers viewed practical activities directly related to practice teaching as more important for their beliefs about foreign-language teaching than activities such as readings, discussions in class, and reflective journals. Building on these findings, this chapter begins with a discussion and related conclusions, followed by implications and recommendations for professional practice and future research. Concluding thoughts are presented in the final section.

<div align="center">Discussion</div>

Research Question 1

The first research question was concerned with the extent of foreign-language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers attending the ICC at DLIFLC. The prospective foreign-language teachers entered the program with a mixture of traditional and

communicative beliefs, and, given the limitations of this pre/posttest design without comparison group, two-thirds of the course participants could have experienced transformations of their beliefs to varying degrees, reflecting more research-based, currently accepted foreign-language teaching practices. These findings are in contrast with earlier research (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Hollingsworth, 1989; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Joram & Gabriele 1998; Kagan, 1992a, 1992b), which found that teacher candidates leave teacher-preparation programs with virtually unchanged beliefs about teaching.

Previous studies addressing the beliefs of preservice teachers and their transformation were uniformly conducted in the context of university-based programs with lengths from one academic quarter (Burke, 2006) to several years of a master's program (Peacock, 2001). Ng et al. (2010) found that preservice teachers changed their conceptual orientation during the course of 1 semester, whereas this study found that transformations might have even happened within the course of 1 month.

One important difference between university-based teacher-preparation courses and this preservice program is that it is offered as a mandatory course by the new employer. It is normally attended during the first 3 months of employment when newly hired teachers are going through a socialization process of integrating into the new workplace. Teachers are still adapting to the values and culture of the new organization. When they attend the ICC, they might be ready to adapt to their new work environment that comes with expectations about foreign-language teaching methods. Black and Ashford (1995) found that new employees in an organization use self-change as a means of adapting to a new place of employment, especially if they are socialized into believing

that their previous behaviors and beliefs must be changed. The message of the ICC and thus DLIFLC continues to be that new teachers at DLIFLC have to adjust to the teaching methodology of their new workplace, which is likely very different from previous places of employment or from their own language-learning experience. Additionally, Tillema (2000) noted that preservice teachers might be ready to change when they enter a teacher-education program.

Another unique feature of the preservice program at DLIFLC is that practice teaching is integrated into the course. On 5 teaching days, ICC participants return to their respective language schools and departments to teach. The teachers develop their lessons based on the actual curriculum used in the schools with guidance and feedback from course facilitators and peers. The experience of teaching, which is thoroughly debriefed in the course and reflected on by the teachers in their journals, provides an opportunity to try out new teaching approaches based on evolving beliefs about foreign-language teaching, and filter the theory of foreign-language teaching methods through practical experience.

Tillema showed that the beliefs of preservice teachers changed more when practice teaching was followed by reflection than when reflection was followed by practice teaching. All of the groups going through the ICC program with integrated practice teaching may have changed their beliefs about foreign-language teaching to a moderate or large extent (Cohen's d ranged from .37 to 1.4). Group IV, however, had the largest difference between pretest ($M = 146.50$; $SD = 7.06$) and posttest scores ($M = 157.33$; $SD = 8.60$) with an effect size of Cohen's $d = 1.4$. For this group, the preservice program was conducted over the course of 8 weeks, because the teachers were

required to teach in the mornings and attend the ICC in the afternoon. As a result, these teachers had many more opportunities for practice teaching during the course and it might be possible that they altered their beliefs about foreign-language teaching to a greater extent than other groups, due to this factor.

Another possible explanation for belief and attitude changes for in-service teachers is provided by Guskey (1986), who asserted that experienced teachers make significant belief changes when they find a specific instructional technique effective in producing positive student outcomes such as increased learning, engagement, and motivation. Because 61% of the research subjects reported prior teaching experience before their employment at DLIFLC and attendance in the ICC, it is reasonable to assume that Guskey's model of transformative change could apply to the foreign-language teachers in the ICC.

It has to be acknowledged, however, that the change scores of almost 30% of the ICC course participants were between 0 and -38, suggesting that they might have changed not at all or that their beliefs changed in the wrong direction, namely reorienting themselves to more traditional beliefs about foreign-language teaching. This change can obviously not be interpreted as transformative. Transformative-learning theory defines transformations as the substitution of outdated frames of reference with more open, adaptive perspectives, which appears not to be the case for one-third of ICC course participants. They may have adopted beliefs about foreign-language teaching that are contrary to the modern foreign-language-teaching methodology espoused by the field, by the ICC, and DLIFLC.

Similar to Levin and He (2008), Ng et al. (2010), and Mattheoudakis (2007), this study found that some beliefs might be more amenable to change than others. Albeit, these past studies reported that beliefs about the role of the teacher remained unchanged, and generalized that beliefs about the teacher and the classroom were less amenable to change than beliefs about instructional methods. Findings in this study were different. Given the many limitations of this study, it appears that beliefs about the use of the target language and methods of error correction may have remained unchanged after the ICC. In fact, the findings suggest that traditional beliefs about error correction may have strengthened somewhat after the ICC. It is surmised by this researcher that this topic was not addressed in enough depth during the course.

With respect to the target language, however, most teachers entering the preservice program already agreed with the primary use of the language to create an immersion environment, so there was no objective or subjective need to adapt beliefs to the context of the new place of employment. Similar to the findings of Levin and He (2008), belief transformations could have occurred in a variety of instructional techniques such as communicative foreign-language teaching, memorization of dialogs, the teaching of grammar, vocabulary, the value of group work, and memorization of dialogs.

Contrary to the findings of Levin and He (2008), this study also found small statistically significant changes in beliefs about the role of the teacher, which may be due to limitations of the study and not reflect true change. Although memorization of dialogs and imitation of correct foreign-language models are linked to a traditional, behaviorist model of foreign-language teaching, group and pair work is a cornerstone of the communicative foreign-language teaching approach. Language learners are given the

opportunity to use the target language in real communicative situations, but teachers are often concerned that this practice might increase errors. Preservice teachers who attended the ICC might have changed their beliefs in both subcategories toward a more informed, modern communicative-teaching approach.

Possibly, moderate change could have occurred in perspectives about grammar. Initially, most ICC participants subscribed to a traditional, rule-based approach to teaching grammar, similar to the findings of past studies (Burke, 2006, Vibulphol, 2004; Watzke, 2007). After the preservice course at DLIFLC, however, moderate change in beliefs about grammar toward a more communicative approach were observed for study participants (Cohen's $d = .48$). Due to the limitations of the study, it remains unclear whether these findings truly reflect the beliefs of the participants after the preservice program. These findings appear contrast with those of Vibulphol (2004) who documented that beliefs about grammar and vocabulary did not change after practice teaching, which is integrated into the ICC. Mattheoudakis (2007) and Watzke (2007), however, reported changes in beliefs about teaching grammar and vocabulary with an increasing acceptance of communicative approaches, suggesting a more refined, theory-based reorientation of beliefs.

Additionally, the current study did not find that the transformation of beliefs was significantly different based on the variables of age, gender, national origin, language taught at DLIFLC, prior foreign-language teaching experience, or prior foreign-language coursework. Yet, there were moderate differences in effect sizes between civilian and MLIs, country groups, some age groups, and teachers who had previous foreign-language teaching experience, whereas the differences in effect sizes for gender groups and groups

with and without prior foreign-language coursework were negligible. ICC facilitators confirmed that there are observable differences between countries-of-origin groups in regard to their beliefs about foreign-language teaching. Horwitz (1999) noted that there was not enough evidence to propose a culturally based model of belief systems, but attributed differences in beliefs to personality and contextual factors. This study found great differences between countries-of-origin groups of preservice teachers at the beginning and end of the ICC. Unfortunately, these differences were not statistically significant, which can be attributed to the size of the population and the various groupings. Soper (2011) noted that at least 158 subjects in total or 76 per group are needed to detect effect sizes below .20 with statistical significance, and this study fell short of this number.

To make the connection to the theoretical framework of transformative learning, the findings about change of beliefs are considered through this lens. Transformative-learning theory differentiates between epochal and incremental transformations and specified that epochal transformations could be triggered by a single catalyst, potentially resulting in a complete paradigm shift, whereas incremental transformations are a process that moves through stages of transformation (Mezirow, 1999, 2000). Considering the limitations of the study, it might be possible to interpret the varying degrees of transformations in various aspects of beliefs about foreign-language teaching from small to moderate effect sizes as incremental transformations. Yet, individual participants may have experienced an epochal shift, as evidenced in the extreme variations of foreign-language teaching beliefs before and after the ICC.

Snyder (2008) noted the difficulty in measuring the final stages of transformative change in Mezirow's framework (2000); therefore, it is suggested with great caution that the participants in the ICC were exploring new roles and actions (Phase 5) during the ICC and acquiring knowledge and skills (Phase 7). During the lesson-planning phases, ICC participants were planning courses of action, and during the practice-teaching events they were most likely experimenting with new roles (Phase 8). The researcher submits that the building of competence in the new role (Phase 9) of communicative-foreign-language teacher might start during the preservice program and could possibly continue after the program.

Research Question 2

The second research question was concerned with the relationship between foreign-language teaching beliefs and the approaches to foreign-language teaching that were experienced as learners. The prevailing view in the scholarly literature is that the beliefs of prospective teachers tend to be based on their own school experiences as learners during the apprenticeship of observation, which are then erroneously overgeneralized as the best way to teach and learn (Anderson et al, 1995; Brody, 1998; Calderhead, 1996; Joram & Gabriele, 1998; Kagan, 1992b; Knowles, 1992; Lortie, 1975; Minor et al., 2002; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 2003). To the best knowledge of this researcher, no other quantitative study linking prior foreign-language-learning experiences and teaching beliefs has been conducted.

Most of the subjects in the current study had experienced traditional approaches to foreign-language learning with the teacher as authority figure, deductive grammar teaching, and little or no opportunity for actual, meaningful language use. Yet, their basic

foreign-language teaching beliefs at the beginning of the ICC did not necessarily reflect this approach. Similarly, Farrell (1999) found that despite having experienced a traditional, deductive approach to language teaching, research participants prepared lessons for their practice teaching that relied on the inductive approach to grammar teaching. The choice of a particular language-teaching approach has to be interpreted as the realization of the beliefs that are held by a prospective teacher (Richardson, 1996, 2003). Farrell reasoned that the approach participants had experienced did not lead to proficiency in the language, and therefore, they adopted a different approach in their own teaching. It seems plausible that these same processes were at play in the current study.

In many countries outside of the United States, the goal of language study is typically not proficiency in the foreign language, but passing written exams (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1999; Hu, 2002; Li, 1998); consequently, little or no ability to communicate in the foreign language is acquired. Teachers at DLIFLC, however, have the explicit task of helping language learners achieve proficiency in listening, reading, and speaking, with writing as an ancillary skill. Just as the participants in Farrell's study, prospective teachers at DLIFLC might have realized that the approach to foreign-language teaching they experienced did not serve them well in reaching proficiency in the language.

Viewing these findings through the lens of transformative-learning theory (Mezirow, 1990, 2000), it can be reasoned that the prospective teachers started a transformative process before they entered the preservice program. They may have experienced the disorienting dilemma of having been taught a foreign language for extensive periods of time and yet having achieved little proficiency. During discussions

in the ICC about participants' individual language-learning history, no one claims to have reached proficiency in English, a foreign language for the majority of ICC participants, through study in a traditional classroom. The preservice teachers in this study did not seem to have uncritically adopted teaching beliefs that were congruent with their own learning experience.

Additionally, the sociocultural view of dynamic beliefs that are shaped by the sociocultural context (Barcelos, 2003; Dufva, 2003) provides an explanation for the lack of a relationship between learning experiences and teaching beliefs. Individuals constantly change their views, opinions, and beliefs through ongoing interactions with the environment and the cultural context. The context of language learning and language teaching at DLIFLC, though, is radically different for almost all of the foreign-born teachers who learned English as a foreign language in their home countries. These teachers may not have only left their home country behind when they made the decision to migrate to the United States, but could also have left behind the context of their foreign-language-learning experiences, which could have been the ultimate transformational experience. The immigrants may have realized that they had to adapt their attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors to their new reality of living in the United States (Gould, 1990; Mezirow, 1990, 2000) and teaching foreign languages at DLIFLC. Furthermore, there may have been several other transformational experiences between the time of the participants' foreign-language learning experiences and their current beliefs about foreign-language teaching that are outside the scope of this study.

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 considered the relationship between language-learning experience and transformation. To the best knowledge of the researcher, no other study was conducted linking these two variables. No statistically significant relationship was found between foreign-language teaching approaches that were experienced as language learners and the degree of transformation after the preservice course at DLIFLC. These results were not entirely unexpected given the fact that beliefs at the beginning of the ICC were not correlated to the foreign-language teaching method that had been experienced. Apparently, the experiences teachers had as foreign-language learners were not the source of preexisting beliefs about foreign-language teaching. These experiences also did not influence the degree of transformation experienced in the ICC.

Research Question 4

The last research question was to detect which of the ICC training techniques were viewed as most influential for participants' current beliefs about foreign-language teaching. ICC participants consistently evaluated practical activities such as lesson planning and practice teaching more highly than activities removed from the actual classroom such as readings, discussions, and reflective journals. A possible explanation for this finding might be that the immediate relevance and connection to teaching is evident. Prior research (Laslie, 1980; Lortie, 1975; NRCTL, 1991) also demonstrated that preservice teachers found teaching experience most helpful for their professional development, which was confirmed by this study. More importantly, the findings suggest that ICC participants acknowledged the powerful influence of practice teaching on their beliefs, potentially because it provided the opportunity to observe and experience positive

student outcomes through the use of instructional techniques taught in the ICC. According to Guskey (1986), the new experience of successful teaching is followed by a significant belief change for in-service teachers and Tillema (2000) found the same for student teachers.

ICC participants considered lesson planning to be highly influential for shaping their beliefs about teaching. The lesson-planning process could be considered as reflection before action (Boud, 2001) and normally requires a prospective teacher to think about the upcoming language lesson in great detail. The planning process requires reflection on assumptions about the students, the teacher, and the instructional methods to be used, discussion, and feedback from an ICC facilitator. Yet, this process is highly valued by participants who do not embrace critical reflection after action, or critical debates. A possible explanation for this phenomenon might be the relatively strong connection of lesson planning to the actual teaching event. Furthermore, the teachers are given time for planning lessons during workshop hours and course facilitators are available to provide guidance and feedback. Additionally, personality type might be an issue.

ICC participants uniformly rated videotaping of their practice-teaching lessons with the subsequent self-evaluation, as well as reflective journals as least important for their current beliefs about foreign-language teaching. Transformative-learning theory, however, perceives critical reflection as essential for transformation, while it is acknowledged that critical reflection and subsequent transformations have the potential to be very unsettling. Critical reflection forces the examination of deeply held values and beliefs, and deep-seated emotions (Dirkx, 2008), which could be an anxiety-laden

experience that encompasses the whole being. ICC participants might not attribute value to an activity that could be uncomfortable and seems to go beyond their role of foreign-language teacher and teaching methodology to be used at DLIFLC.

Another more pragmatic explanation for the low ratings of videotaping lessons is that it places a considerable logistical burden on the teachers. They have to procure a camera from their department or school, which requires filling out paperwork and assuming financial liability in case of loss or damage. The filming has to be arranged, the tape has to be digitized, and then of course, the video has to be watched. Watching yourself on camera is a very uncomfortable experience for many people. Most of the time, there is the additional challenge of finding a private place to view the tape and ICC participants may opt to do this at home after an already long day at work. There could be quite a bit of resentment about this ICC requirement that eventually resulted in the low ratings for this technique.

Although, the writing of reflective journals does not place the same logistical demands as videotaping on the teacher, it is the least valued technique used in the ICC. Again, there may be a practical reason for this evaluation. ICC attendees are not given time during course hours to write in their journals and have to complete this task after regular working hours. Readings of professional literature and subsequent discussions in the course were comparatively low in the importance ratings. One possible explanation might be offered by transformative-learning theory. Descriptions of best practices in foreign-language teaching in professional journal articles might constitute a disorienting dilemma. Readers are faced with the fact that their beliefs about foreign-language

teaching are no longer sustainable or appropriate in the current context, which creates an uncomfortable situation that is not valued.

Interpreting the findings of the last research question through the lens of transformative-learning theory (Brookfield, 1995; Cranton, 2002; Mezirow, 1990, 2000), it appears that critical reflection in the various forms of reading of professional literature, discussion of foreign-language teaching concepts, videotaping of practice lessons with subsequent reflection, and the writing of reflective journals were considered essential for the transformation of beliefs about foreign-language teaching, even though course participants did not rate them as critical factors for their current beliefs about teaching. Practice teaching and planning for teaching, however, were considered as highly influential.

Conclusions

Keeping in mind the limitations of the study, several provisional conclusions about the nature of beliefs and their transformations for the underresearched group of teachers of less commonly taught languages are submitted. Additionally, some tentative conclusions about the structure of a potentially effective transformative foreign-language teacher preservice program are offered. Moreover, conclusions about the influence of foreign-language learning experience (apprenticeship of observation) for foreign-language teaching beliefs are presented. Finally, the views of the study subjects about practical and reflective components of the preservice program at DLIFLC prompted additional conclusions.

This study found a possible moderate belief change about communicative foreign-language teaching after a 4-week intensive preservice program given at DLIFLC in

different areas of instructional foreign-language teaching methods. These findings may warrant the cautious conclusion that beliefs about teaching foreign languages might be amenable to change due to the influences of a teacher-education program. The preservice program at DLIFLC contains elements of critical reflection, integrates practice-teaching opportunities in the actual context of teachers' work assignment, and models effective teaching practices in the course. It might be possible that these factors could have triggered a change in beliefs. Even though transformative-learning theory provides a framework for transformations of beliefs, it remains difficult to identify a transformative stage to the belief changes that might have occurred.

Bramald et al. (1995) and Mattheoudakis (2007) posited that belief change takes time. It appears, though, that most teachers attending the preservice-teacher program at DLIFLC might have undergone a moderate belief change about foreign-language teaching within the short time of 4 weeks. Therefore, it might be concluded that transformations of foreign-language teaching beliefs are not contingent on time.

No support was found for the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), which posits that early experiences with schooling, teachers, and instructional methods cause deep-seated, stable belief systems about teaching. The majority of teachers attending the preservice program at DLIFLC may have experienced a change of beliefs due to influences of the ICC. Additionally, there was no relationship between foreign-language teaching approaches that had been experienced while learning a foreign language, the apprenticeship of observation, and the beliefs of foreign-language teachers when entering the preservice program. Therefore, it can be concluded that the apprenticeship of

observation does not apply to the teaching beliefs of teachers of less commonly taught languages.

Finally, there is no conclusive evidence about the role of critical reflection for the transformative processes of foreign-language teachers. Preservice foreign-language teachers in the DLIFLC program viewed the preparation for teaching and teaching itself as important for the beliefs they held after the program; whereas critical reflection was not seen as equally valuable.

Implications

The implications of this study could inform the design of potentially effective preservice programs for foreign-language teachers. Raths and McAninch (2003) lamented the fact that the process of transformation is not well understood, but this study might contribute by adding to the list of structural factors that could foster belief change. It is widely accepted in the literature that successful teacher-preparation programs need to take the incoming beliefs of their preservice teachers into consideration, provide opportunities for practice teaching, as well as critical reflection. The crucial difference between university-based teacher-preparation programs that have been widely studied and the preservice program that was investigated is that the DLIFLC program is employer-sponsored and of a short duration. Newly hired teachers are socialized into the foreign-language-teaching culture at DLIFLC through this program and they might adapt their views, beliefs, and attitudes about foreign-language teaching to the expectations of their employer and the realities of DLIFLC classrooms. Additionally, this study may have challenged the notion that transformations are dependent on time, proposed by some researchers (Bramald et al., 1995; Mattheoudakis, 2007). Within the limitations of the

study, it might have shown that belief change may be possible through a short, intensive preservice program.

This is one of only a few studies that investigated the beliefs of teachers of less commonly taught languages. The population of this study was different from those in other studies in that almost all of the subjects were native speakers who had left their home countries and started to teach less commonly taught languages in the United States. Therefore, this study might provide insight and understanding about the beliefs of these foreign-language teachers and their transformations that was not previously available. Furthermore, this study might inform the training programs for foreign-born teaching assistants who are employed by many university programs.

To the best knowledge of this researcher, there are no other quantitative studies investigating the relationship between foreign-language teaching approaches experienced by learners of EFL, foreign-language-teaching beliefs, and the degree of change. The literature overwhelmingly suggested that the early experiences in the classroom shape the beliefs of future teachers and thus perpetuate the status quo of traditional teaching methods. This researcher found no association between these variables.

Lastly, it has already been suggested by past research that neophyte teachers think they can only learn from teaching and this study confirmed this preference. Furthermore, this study also confirmed that critical reflection was not highly valued by program participants; yet, it may contribute to some degree to the transformation of foreign-language teaching beliefs.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, several recommendations are offered for policymakers at DLIFLC, foreign-language teacher educators, and scholars. The results of this study can be applied by scholars to the existing literature in the field of preservice-teacher training and development, particularly teachers of less commonly taught languages; by practitioners in the field of foreign-language teacher education responsible for the design of effective preservice programs; and by policymakers in the Department of Defense as well as other nongovernmental agencies and organizations teaching foreign languages using foreign-born teachers and teaching assistants.

Recommendations for Professional Practices

First, it is important to note that the preservice program at DLIFLC might have been effective in bringing about transformations of beliefs about CLT methods, and the design principles of this program could be applied by other educational institutions. However, it is recommended that the course length of the DLIFLC preservice program be extended for two reasons: (a) the additional course time could be used to address some topics, such as error correction, in more depth, (b) the additional time could afford the opportunity to course participants to complete their reading and reflective-journal-writing assignments during course hours and thus, potentially reduce resistance to writing reflective journals and increase the effectiveness of this tool.

Additionally, the power of critical reflection might be enhanced if the organization provided more help with the filming of practice-teaching events. Critical reflection is regarded as an essential facet of transformational change, and this should not be diminished by logistical problems that prospective teachers face. Therefore, it is

recommended that DLIFLC explore ways to support newly hired teachers more in obtaining assistance with these tasks.

This study might provide insight into some of the characteristics of a foreign-language-teacher preparation program with the potential of transformative change, and thus the following guidelines for course designers and curriculum developers of teacher preparation programs are offered. Programs should (a) be based on the preexisting beliefs of future language teachers; (b) integrate several teaching practice events; (c) provide numerous opportunities for critical reflection of preexisting beliefs and teaching practice, (d) be situated in the actual social and instructional context of the teacher; and (e) model effective instructional techniques by course facilitators. Although it remains unclear which of these factors may have contributed to a possible transformative change of the course participants, the balance of all these factors is considered crucial for the success of a program.

The course participants viewed practice teaching as most important; in order to design learner-centered programs, it is recommended that preservice programs incorporate multiple opportunities for practice teaching, if possible in the actual context of their future employment. These teaching events combined with reflection before action and after action (Boud, 2001, Tillema, 2000) could be powerful change agents, and teacher-preparation programs could harness this power to achieve their goals.

In response to Darling-Hammond's critique (1999) of instructional techniques at university programs, it is recommended that course facilitators model effective foreign-language instructional techniques in the preservice program and have course participants experience these instructional methods, thus paving the way for transformation.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study was limited to a convenience sample of 89 foreign-language teachers attending the preservice program at DLIFLC during the 4-month period of January to April 2011, without a control group. To increase the knowledge base of designers and facilitators of foreign-language teacher-education programs, it is recommended to continue collecting data about the beliefs of foreign-language teachers of less commonly taught languages in future quasiexperimental studies. Further research efforts would assure that curriculum developers of preservice programs are aware of the preexisting beliefs of their teacher candidates, as recommended by Raths (2001) and Horwitz (1985), and enable them to design programs with transformative potential (Mezirow, 1990, 2000). Only an intervention that specifically addresses the lay beliefs of future foreign-language teachers can transform these beliefs.

It is recommended to increase the sample size in future studies to make it possible to detect smaller differences between groups of preservice teachers based on national origin and other factors that could not be detected here. Further, study of the population of preservice teachers of less commonly taught languages with a larger sample would allow generalization beyond the population studied here. According to 2009 survey data of the Modern Language Association, there appears to be a growing demand for less commonly taught languages such as Arabic, Korean, and Chinese, beyond the needs of the U.S. government and Department of Defense. An aggregated gain of 20.8% in university enrollments for less commonly taught language was reported (Furman et al., 2010) and therefore a need to assess the beliefs of these foreign-language teachers exists.

To determine whether any transformation of beliefs is durable beyond the time of the preservice program, it would be beneficial to collect data about foreign-language teaching beliefs at additional times, such as at 3 months, 6 months, and 1 year after the preservice program. A follow-up survey might allow answering questions such as the following: How do the newly formed beliefs withstand the day-to-day reality of teaching in the schools? How could the belief change be supported in the schools? What additional measures could be taken by preservice programs to support the new foreign-language teachers and strengthen their communicative beliefs and teaching practices?

It is also suggested to conduct a mixed-methods study with a consecutive quantitative and qualitative component. Selected preservice-program participants could be interviewed to gain more insight into their transformative histories before the beginning of the teacher preparation program. These interviews might uncover what experiences or life events may have triggered disorienting dilemmas that allowed an individual to break out of the self-perpetuating, culturally determined cycles of frames of reference or habits of mind.

The portfolios the teachers assembled during the preservice course could be a valuable component of further qualitative research. A careful analysis of the reflective journals included in the portfolio might allow deeper insight into the beliefs about foreign-language teaching and their transformation. The analysis of lesson plans included in the portfolios might be used to triangulate the findings from the quantitative-research component and provide evidence about the development of beliefs of foreign-language teachers. The videos of classes that were filmed during the preservice program together

with an added element of class observations could provide additional insight about the relationship between beliefs and actions.

Lastly, Ellis (1999) raised the issue of beliefs about foreign-language teaching and cultural identity. Some tenets of CLT such as the role of the teacher and the role of students seem to be in direct contradiction to the norms of the culture of non-Western societies. To explore the relationship between cultural and professional identity, it is recommended to follow up on this theme with a qualitative study in the future.

Concluding Thoughts

Transformative theory postulates that the purpose of adult education is the reframing of outdated perspectives to more open, true, and inclusive ones (Mezirow, 2000). In essence, uncritically acquired beliefs and values are transformed to more justified and adapted perspectives. For teacher education and foreign-language teacher education, that means teachers become aware of and critically reflect about their beliefs, and start transforming them on the basis of second-language acquisition research, best practices in teaching, and the goals and requirements of the educational context. The preceding statements reflect my personal and professional beliefs as a teacher educator, which I have tried to integrate into the institute's preservice program.

During my research into belief change and transformation through teacher-education programs, I became increasingly dismayed about the characterization of beliefs as immutable and resistant to change. Many teacher-education programs were essentially failing to transform and professionalize the beliefs of their teacher candidates, but there were also some that seemed to be successful in the endeavor of transformation.

Additionally, there was a dearth of literature that could be applied to the setting at DLIFLC, with many teachers of less commonly taught languages and an extremely short preservice program. The possibility to contribute to the field of foreign-language teaching and teacher education presented itself.

At the end of this research project, I have renewed vigor to pursue my profession in the field of foreign-language-teacher education. I strive to gain more insight into the processes and factors that might make teacher-preparation programs effective by building on this study. These insights will inform my efforts to strengthen the transformative potential of the ICC, thereby benefitting foreign-language teachers and their students at DLIFLC, and eventually also make a small contribution to the field of foreign-language teacher education.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: SYLLABUS OF THE INSTRUCTOR CERTIFICATION COURSE

Course Syllabus: Instructor Certification Course (ICC)

Course Description:
This four-week course is required of all new faculty members, both civilian and military, within three months of arrival at DLI. The ICC provides an introduction to the DLI mission and foreign language teaching in the DLI context. It emphasizes DLI's approach of teaching for proficiency with a focus on skill integration and the Final Learning Objectives (FLOs). Participants expand their knowledge and skills through discussions, mini-lectures, exposure to sample activities, teaching demonstrations, out-of-class assignments, peer observations, and practice teaching. They engage in self-development through teaching in DLI classes, developing lesson plans, being observed by faculty developers and peers, practicing self-evaluation, and receiving feedback.

Course Objectives
By the end of this course participants will have

- recognized the main characteristics of adult learning and language learning processes and their relationship to methods in foreign language education.

- understood the principles underlying the teaching of listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary, and integrated these areas effectively in the class teaching.

- identified the FLO sub-skills, content areas, and ancillary and proficiency objectives unique to the military learning environment at DLI.

- recognized the significance of tasks in language teaching and demonstrated the ability to design and use them.

- adapted and supplemented textbooks with authentic materials and FLO-oriented, real-life tasks.

- planned and conducted micro-teaching sessions that demonstrate understanding of the principles of learner-centered, proficiency-oriented instruction.

- shown familiarity with the variety of technological resources at DLI and their

  multiple uses in creating proficiency-oriented lessons.

Course Policies & requirements

Methodology: ICC is hands-on and interactive; it consists of whole-class and small-group discussions, experiential activities, case studies, facilitator teaching demonstrations, micro-teaching events, and application of content from the workshop in the teaching context of the participants.

Attendance: Attendance is mandatory. In case of emergency such as illness, you need to contact your supervisor and the FD facilitator (POC), and we will try to accommodate on a case-by-case basis.

Course hours:
    Duty Hours are from 7:45 - 16:45
    Morning 8**:**00 -1200
    Lunch 12:00 -13:00
    Afternoon 13:15 -16:30
    * There will be one break in the morning and one in the afternoon**.**

Punctuality: Class starts on time. Please arrive on time in the morning, after lunch, and after breaks as a courtesy to both your facilitators and fellow classmates who arrive on time.

Teaching days: Participants are required to schedule one hour of teaching during each teaching day for a total of five hours of teaching through the ICC course. Also they are required to observe at least one class every teaching days taught by other participants in the ICC course. Please see the teaching day schedule. In addition, on the afternoon of day three, participants are required to observe a class in their own school (i.e. department). Please see the course schedule.

Badges: All DoD access badges and holders need to be turned in to the workshop facilitators on the last day of the course.

Leave: During the ICC no leave can be granted.

Conduct: It is expected that course participants will adhere to all norms established in the course and conduct themselves professionally at all times. Unprofessional conduct will be reported to the school and the supervisor, and may result in disciplinary action. Any behavior violating EEO guidelines will not be tolerated and constitutes grounds for immediate dismissal from the course.

Emergency Procedures

Security briefing: Before the ICC training starts, the DoD building security officer will come to the training room to conduct a security briefing. It is the workshop participants' responsibility to strictly follow the security procedures and to demonstrate appropriate and professional conduct in the DoD facility. DLI is a tenant in this building. Any issue pertaining to Institute business should be addressed to the workshop facilitators or participant's supervisory chain; security and other safety/protocol issues can be directed to building security.

Assembly point: In case of emergency alarms, please follow the facilitator and evacuate from the building to the designated assembly point.

Course assignments

Readings
Throughout the course participants read selected articles and answer guided questions related to these readings.

Activity Forum
Participants design an original language activity to demonstrate their understanding of concepts they have learned in the course and up-load this activity to Blackboard. On the last day of the ICC workshop, participants present this activity accompanied by a written description.

Portfolio
Participants are required to submit a portfolio during the final week of ICC. This portfolio will be a compilation of the works produced by the participants during the course, such as personal statement, copies of lesson plans, post-teaching self-surveys, student questionnaires, peer observation sheets, activity descriptions. The portfolio will be reviewed by ICC facilitators and returned to the participants on the last day of the course.

Reflective Journal
Participants are required to maintain a reflective journal. The purpose of the journal is to provide participants an opportunity to reflect on information being presented in ICC, relate that information to one's past teaching experience, and integrate past and current learning with one's future at DLI. It is also a chance to share with facilitators and colleagues some of the issues participants are working on during ICC.

Videotape of Classroom Teaching
Another tool for self-development, videotaping one's teaching is a widely-used training technique in the field of foreign language teaching and teacher education. Participants are required to videotape at least one of their Teaching Day lessons, and do a Post-Lesson Video Reflective Questionnaire. Participants will have the choice of turning in a copy of

their video to the facilitators on a voluntary basis and are encouraged to keep a copy for their own reference. Participants are responsible to contact their chairperson or the school's supply officer to reserve the required equipment and tapes/DVD for their recording.

Certification
At the end of the course, facilitators will fill out a Post-ICC Feedback Report on each participant (see attached sample p. 11). These reports will be forwarded to the school leadership (Dean, Chair, Academic Specialist) so that development plans for each participant can be created and updated. Some participants may be recommended for Post-ICC Mentoring, a new program meant to support new teachers' transition into their new teaching environment.
At least one month after ICC, facilitators will start contacting participants to schedule ICC certification observations. During this one month period, participants have the opportunity to apply ideas and techniques learned in ICC to their teaching context (see attached Guidelines for a more detailed description of the certification process p. 12).

COURSE SCHEDULE

Week 1

Day	Topics	Assignments
1	Overview of the program Learning at DLI: The American Military Learner The DLI mission Military and the academic duties Students point of view	Prepare non-language demo Bring textbook
2	Issues of Learning/teaching Principles of adult learning Foreign Language Teaching Methodologies (1) Overview of FLT Methodologies	Journal entry 1 Reading: Omaggio, A. (2001). Teaching language in context (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
3	Foreign Language Teaching Methodologies (2) Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Classroom observation	Journal entry 2
4	Teaching at DLI The FLO skills The ILR scale Task Based Instruction (1) Principles of task design Textbook analysis Teaching critical thinking	
5	Task Based Instruction (2) Language activities and curriculum Integrating authentic materials in LT Lesson Planning Principles of lesson planning	Journal entry 3 Reading: 1) Lim, H. Developing communicative tasks. 2) Menke, G. Using authentic materials in the DLI classroom.

Week 2

Day	Topics	Assignments
1	Teaching Reading ILR levels for reading Schema theory Reading skills	
2	Teaching Day 1: Teaching Reading Teaching Peer observation Feedback: Reflecting on the lesson	Journal entry 4
3	Classroom Management Teaching Culture Cultural values Pragmatics in language teaching	
4	Teaching Speaking Principles of spoken communication Error correction	Journal entry 5
5	Teaching Day 2: Teaching Speaking Teaching Peer observation Feedback: Reflecting on the lesson	Reading: 1) Brown, D. H. (2001). Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy. 2nd ed. New York: Addison Wesley Longman. 2) Larsen-Freeman, D. Grammar and Its Teaching: Challenging the Myths. ERIC Digest 3) Ponterio, R. Enhancing Authentic Language Learning Experiences through Internet Technology. ERIC Digest

Week 3

Day	Topic	Assignment
1	Teaching Listening ILR levels for Listening Material selection Task design for listening FLO activities for Listening	
2	Teaching Day 3: Teaching Listening Teaching Peer observation Feedback: Reflecting on the lesson	
3	Technology in FLT Introduction to SmartBoard Technology and lesson planning	Journal entry 6
4	Teaching Grammar Grammar and communication Methods for teaching grammar	Journal entry 7
5	Teaching Day 4: Teaching Grammar Teaching Peer observation Feedback: Reflecting on the lesson	Journal entry 8 Reading: 1) Critchley, M. (1998). Reading to learn: Pedagogical implications of vocabulary research. 2) Newton, J. (1999). Options for vocabulary learning.

Week 4

Day	Topic	Assignment
1	Teaching Vocabulary Vocabulary introduction and expansion Vocabulary retention	Journal entry 9:
2	Teaching Day 4: Teaching Vocabulary Teaching Peer observation Feedback: Reflecting on the lesson	Personal statement of purpose (to include in Portfolio)
3	Learning Learner types Learning strategies	Portfolio submission Final day activity preparation
4	Testing issues at DLI Types of tests Testing and teaching Motivation—students and teachers Professional development for teachers	Final day activity preparation
5	Final Day Activity Forum Language activity presentation	

Post-ICC Feedback Report

Teacher/Participant: Teacher's Supervisor:
School: Today's Date:
Dates of Attendance: ICC Facilitators:

Purpose: The purpose of this document is to provide the teacher and the supervisor with useful information for continued post-ICC mentoring and development in the department.

Content area	Progress as expected	Needs additional support	Comments
Teaching Skills			
Lesson Planning			
Teaching Listening			
Teaching Reading			
Teaching Speaking			
Teaching Vocabulary			
Teaching Grammar			
Teaching Culture			
Selecting Authentic Texts			
Teaching FLOs Communicatively			
Using a Variety of Methods			
Using Technology (SMARTBoard)			
Adapting the Textbook			
Knowledge			
Knowledge of FLOs			
Knowledge of Proficiency Levels			
Classroom Management			
Giving Instructions			
Keeping Students on Task			
Time Management			
Monitoring Ss			
Setting up Group work			
Working with Students			
Identifying Weaknesses and Strengths of Ss			
Tailoring to Students' Styles			
Providing Corrective Feedback			
Using a Variety of Error Correction Techniques			

ICC CERTIFICATION PROCESS GUIDELINES

A Faculty Development Specialist will contact you at least one month after the completion of your ICC in order to schedule your certification observation.

PLANNING:_____

☐ **1.** For your certification, if you are a civilian, your Chairperson must be present during the observation; if you are military, your Chief MLI must be in attendance. Therefore, you need to select an observation time that works for all three people involved—you, your supervisor, and the Faculty Development Specialist. Supervisor's attendance is mandatory.

☐ **2.** Confirm the date, time, building and room number for observation with the Faculty Development Specialist and your supervisor.

☐ **3.** Prepare a lesson plan for the selected hour and arrange a pre-observation conference with the Faculty Development Specialist to go over the lesson plan; or, email him/her your lesson plan. This process should begin approximately one week before the observation.

PRE-OBSERVATION:_____

☐ **4.** Pre-observation conference:

- You and the Faculty Development Specialist will review the Lesson Plan, either in person, by phone, or via email. You may be asked to change or elaborate your lesson plan based on this discussion.

OBSERVATION:_____

☐ **5.** On the day of the observation:

- Bring copies of the finalized lesson plan for the Faculty Development Specialist and for your supervisor who will be co-observing.

- Remember that certification is a process. Certification is not automatic.

POST- OBSERVATION:_____

☐ **6.**   Post-observation conference:

- You, your supervisor, and the Faculty Development Specialist will discuss your lesson.

- If you can be certified, your certificate will be forwarded to you through the FD Academic Associate Dean to your supervisor.

- If you cannot be certified, you will be recommended for post-ICC mentoring. At the completion of the mentoring process, you will repeat the observation process from step 1 with the same Faculty Development Specialist.

Questions regarding the certification process should be addressed to the FD Academic Associate Dean.

Instructor Certification Course (ICC), Faculty Development Division, DLIFLC

APPENDIX B: LESSON PLAN FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR

Time	Activity	Materials
8:00–9:00	**TOPIC: Teaching Grammar** **Part One: Presenting Grammar** **Introduction**: F previews the day's agenda, then informs Ps that they are going to play the role of English language learners. F explains that Ps will experience two different approaches to teaching and learning grammar, which they will later be asked to compare and contrast. → **Activity: "Presenting Grammar (Deductive/Inductive Approach to Grammar Teaching)"** 1. **Grammar Presentation A** (Negative adverbs of zero or low frequency): F explains the rule of 'adverb fronting in sentences' using Ppt slides. (Rule: When negative adverbs of no or low frequency occur at the start of a sentence, the subject and the auxiliary verb must switch places.) 2. **Grammar Presentation B** (Preposition of time): F distributes worksheets to Ps. Ps take 10 minutes answering the questions on the worksheet. 3. **Processing**: F draws T-chart on flipchart, eliciting from participants key characteristics of each presentation method. *Possible questions F may use are* • *Which came first, the rules or the examples?* • *Which was more contextualized?* • *Who was more visibly active during each of the activities?* • *If you had less than 10 minutes to present grammar to the students, which approach would you choose?* • *Which approach required you to analyze or evaluate grammatical information?* • *When teaching exceptions to the rule, which approach might be more effective?* • *If you put yourself in the students' shoes, which approach might better help you internalize the target grammar point?* During the processing, Fs may elicit from Ps the differences between A and B, including the following, on a T-chart.	Ppt slides 1-6 (for Presentation A) Ppt slide 7 Worksheet (for Presentation B) Flip chart

A (Deductive)	B (Inductive)
Rule→ Examples	Examples→ Rules
Out-of-context	Contextualized
Teacher-centered	Student-centered
Time-saving	Time-consuming
LOTS	HOTS
Useful with exceptions to rules	Useful with generalizations

	Learning points: ***The purpose of these activities is to introduce the concepts of "deductive" and "inductive" approaches to introducing grammar points. By experiencing & later identifying the major characteristics of each, Ps will develop an understanding of when & how to best use either of these approaches. In processing, it should be noted that the discussion may include pros/cons of each, but should not go further into discussing which approach is preferable, since the main goal of this session is to introduce concepts, not to evaluate them (this will happen later).***	
	Ten Minute Break	
9:10–9:40	**Part Two: Practicing Grammar** → **Activity: "Practicing Grammar"** **Brainstorming** 1. F distributes a "grammar practice activities" chart and asks Ps, in groups, to brainstorm grammar practice activities they frequently use in their classes or find in their textbooks. [Note → If Ps do not have enough teaching experience at DLI, they can refer back to their prior experience teaching and/or learning second/foreign language grammar.] 2. When finished, Ps share their activities with the whole group. F captures the list of activities on flipchart. 3. F randomly chooses 3–4 activities (mostly manipulative drill-type exercises, if they have been posted) from the list and asks Ps whether those grammar practice activities contain task elements (vis-à-vis the questions on Ppt slide 9).	Ppt slide 8 HO: grammar practice activities chart (brain-storming) Flipchart Ppt slide 9
	Learning Points: ***This is a warm-up session before moving Ps to the practice phase of grammar instruction. Ps will be able to relate their own grammar teaching practices/experiences to previously learned concept of tasks, and begin to consider the wide variety of approaches to teaching grammar.***	
9:40–11:00	→ **Activity: "Practicing Grammar (cont'd) – Grammar Round Robin"** 1. Fs set up 3 different grammar task stations. 2. Ps are divided into three groups, and they spend 15 minutes in each station experiencing grammar tasks, and another 5 minutes filling in grammar task charts after each task station.	Ppt slide 10 HO: Grammar task chart

Station 1 (Total Physical Response) • Activity 1 – Command form (Level 0+) • Activity 2 – Prepositions indicating relative location (low level 1)	1. Activity Instruction 2. List 1 3. Pictures 4. Worksheet 5. A complete U.S. map 6. Puzzle pieces
Station 2 (Structured Input) • Activity 1 – Comparatives (Level 1) • Activity 2 – Adjectives [ending _ed vs. _ing] (Level 1) • Activity 3 – Modal auxiliaries 'must/must not,' & 'should/should not' (Input-based; Level 1)	1. Activity Instruction 2. Statement slips 3. Worksheet
Station 3 (Grammaticization) • Activity 1 – "Be" verbs, modal auxiliary "would," & prepositions (Level 1+) • Activity 2 – Past tense (level 1+)	1. Activity Instruction 2. Question slips 3. Worksheet
Processing: F briefly processes each of the grammar station activities based on the information Ps completed in the grammar task chart; group's attention is focused on the various grammar features present, as well as key task components. Fs encourage Ps to compare & contrast their findings, negotiate disagreements, etc. → Questions for debriefing may include: • *How do these activities differ from each other in their instructional objectives?* • *Are these activities different from those you've used in your classes? If yes, how?*	Completed grammar task chart (for F reference
Leaning Points: ***These "grammar stations" demonstrate several approaches to practicing selected English structures that may be adapted for their own languages. In debriefing, Ps may recognize Station 1 activities as TPR, which requires learners to demonstrate their comprehension of the structure through action; the "structured input" tasks in Station 2 also require that comprehension be demonstrated with a minimal amount of language production (i.e. through agreeing/disagreeing, answering opinion questions, follow-up questions, etc.). Ps may contrast these activities with the "grammaticization" activities of Station 3, which are output-based.***	

	10 Minute Break	
11:10–11:45	→ **Activity: "Integrating Form-Focused Instruction with Skills-Focused [Listening] Activities ['Big Three US Automobile Companies are at Stake']** When Ps have navigated & processed activities from all 3 stations, Fs introduce another grammar activity for higher levels: text creation with LC activity (modal auxiliaries "should/should not have + past participle").	
	1. **Lead-in/schemata-building:** F shows participants various automobile-related pictures on SmartBoard and asks Ps to predict the topic/contents of the listening passage.	1. Pictures on SmartBoard
	2. **Global listening:** F distributes listening worksheet (divided into Parts I & II) and directs Ps attention to questions for global listening (Part I). F plays entire passage for group. **Note → F should acknowledge that in a "normal" English lesson, the teacher would pause to collect S responses to global listening questions, check general comprehension, etc.**	2. Video (or audio)
	3. **Listening for detail:** F plays news clip again, this time pausing between segments (3); Ps complete Part II of their worksheet, recording detailed information.	3. Worksheet
	4. **Review listening [Note → optional, time permitting]:** F plays passage a final time & Ps write in additional and/or missing information on the worksheet.	
	5. Fs ask Ps to share their findings within their groups and consolidate their answers.	
	6. **Observable outcome (analysis):** Each group is instructed to consider the information captured in Parts I & II and develop 3-4 written opinions/perspectives using the target grammar feature (should/should not have + past participle). (5-7 min) **Question →** "What should/shouldn't the government/automobile companies have done to prevent this crisis from happening?"	Flipchart
	7. When groups have finished, F uses nominal group technique to collect groups' observations (expressed in full sentence form using should/shouldn't have + past participle); F captures points on flip chart using different colored markers to track each group's responses [**Note → Fs need to make sure that after capturing a response from any group, he/she asks if other groups produced that as well and make a colored notation to give the group "credit."**]	
	8. At the end of share-out, discussion occurs to determine which group provided the best responses; justification for that choice is also to be provided by the whole group (for example, 'focusing on using grammar forms consistently & accurately, making reasonable, textually-tied inferences, etc.').	Completed Grammar Task Chart (for F use)
	9. Before final processing, F invites Ps to take 2 minutes to complete final entry on "Grammar Task Chart."	
	10. Processing: F invites individual/group entries to share "Grammar Task Chart" entries. After discussion, Fs pose following questions for "debriefing":	

	• Compare this activity to the grammar tasks you performed at the grammar stations. What were the differences and/or similarities? Which did you find most engaging? Useful? Etc.	
	• Re. the last activity, was the listening passage appropriate for practicing the target structure (should/shouldn't + past participle)? Why or why not?	
	→ [Possible responses:	
	• Yes, because the passage provided a context for the structure to be used realistically;	
	• No, because the passage didn't model the use of the structure; Etc.]	
	Learning Points: ***This final activity demonstrates how form-focused instruction can be integrated with another skill-focused activity (in this case, listening), as well as balance input (comprehension) and output (meaningful application of form). This activity also demonstrates that the text itself (here, an authentic listening passage) doesn't always need to contain a specific grammar pattern that learners must listen for & later reproduce; rather, Ts can use listening activities to provide context & meaning for output-based grammar tasks. Fs should emphasize that output-based grammar tasks are accompanied by an observable outcome, which the instructor will use to evaluate students' usage of the target grammar form in context and provide corrective feedback as needed.***	
	Hour and a Half Lunch Break	
1:15–2:15	**TOPIC: Role of Input, Output, and Corrective Feedback in Grammar Instruction** **Part 3** 1. F reviews the morning's activities, reminding Ps that some of the activities required Ps to *comprehend* a particular grammar feature (e.g. station 3) in order to perform assigned tasks, while others (e.g. station 4) required Ps to *produce* the target structure.	
	2. Transitioning to the introduction of 'input-output-corrective feedback' cycle, Fs clarify the concept of input [comprehension] and output [production]-based grammar tasks via Ppt slide 9 (Grammar tasks: input-based vs. output-based).	Ppt slide 11
	3. F then poses a question to Ps via slide 10—*Why are output-based grammar tasks important? [Note → **alt. question: How do you think output-based grammar tasks can help Ss learn forms?**]*—before moving on to the next topic (Interrelationships among input, output, & corrective feedback).	Ppt slide 12
	4. To delve further into the above question, Fs distribute to each group a short, laminated statement regarding the role of output and corrective feedback in grammar instruction; F instructs each group to discuss and interpret the statement from their own frame of reference/experience. F may model the activity (i.e. response-giving), sharing his/her own experience learning the second/foreign language as appropriate/necessary. F should also offer an example/model such as the following:	Four laminated information slips (about the role of output & corrective feedback)

"Output pushes learners to process language more deeply by stretching their existing 'linguistic repertoire' (i.e. existing linguistic knowledge & ability) to meet communicative goals." – F invites whole group to consider this statement and briefly *provide supporting (or contradicting) evidence from their own experience or field knowledge.*

[Statements]

A. *While producing the language, learners will notice the gap between what they know they are* supposed *to say and what they are actually* able *to say.*

B. *Output (i.e. speaking and/or writing activities)* obliges *learners to pay attention to grammar for accurate production of the target language.*

C. *Corrective feedback, particularly feedback offered at the time of output, is critical to improve accuracy.*

D. *While producing the language, learners hear themselves—including their own errors—and self-correct.*

5. When small-group discussion has ended (5–10 min.), F processes group responses by showing each statement (one-by-one) (Ppt slides 11-12) & inviting each group to summarize their discussions for whole group (discussion may include response to questions, "*Did you find any significant similarities and/or differences in your individual experiences?" and "What, if any, 'conclusions' are you starting to come to regarding the process of learning grammar?"*).	Ppt slides 13–15
6. As a consolidation activity, F invites Ps to generate a diagram that represents an 'input-output-corrective feedback' cycle (explaining how learner acquires particular grammar structure) on flipchart.	Flipcharts
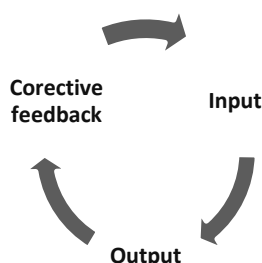
[example]

7. Each group presents their visual representation of input-output-corrective feedback cycles, along with justifications for their reasoning.

Learning Points:
The importance of understanding 'input-output-corrective feedback' cycle cannot be emphasized too much in grammar instruction. This process enables learners to comprehend a particular linguistic form from input, to test their hypothesis while producing the form in output, and to confirm or revise the hypothesis from corrective feedback, all of which will lead to the acquisition of the target linguistic form. In this regard, this session will raise teachers' awareness of the importance of the concurrent use of both input & output-based grammar practice and the accompanying feedback on learners' language production.

Ten Minute Break		

2:25–COB	**TOPIC: Grammar Lesson Planning & Peer Feedback**
	
	<u>Part 4</u>
	
	  1. Ps sit with their spotters for a peer feedback session (F will briefly explain the rationale – see learning points).
	
	  2. Ps are instructed to design a lesson plan incorporating the key concepts learned today.
	
	  – Presentation phase: Choose either inductive or deductive approach.
	
	  – Practice and Produce phases: Incorporate he type(s) of activities among the 4 different models introduced in the previous task stations.
	
	  3. When finished, Ps exchange feedback on their lesson plans with the spotter using 'checklist for lesson planning proficiency' sheet.
	
	  4. They may seek final review of their lesson plan from facilitators (when needed).
		Ppt slide 16 & 17
		
		PPP lesson plan template
		
		Worksheet:
		
		Checklist for lesson planning for proficiency

	Learning Points: *In this session, Ps use information/ideas learned in the previous sessions to create both input and output-based grammar tasks for their students. Considering this is the 4th time Ps design/develop their own lesson plans, they have relatively solid ideas on how to design their lessons within PPP lesson plan format. Therefore, Fs should encourage Ps to exchange feedback with his/her spotter on their lesson plans with a minimum amount of F feedback & intervention. This peer feedback session with spotters can be extended to the post-lesson debriefing session the next day, when they discuss the gap between what was planned and what actually happened in the classroom.*	

APPENDIX C: BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY

Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)
Teacher Version

Below are beliefs that some people have about learning foreign lanugages. Read each statement and then decide if you: 1) strongly agree, 2) agree, 3) neither agree nor disagree, 4) disagree, 5) strongly disagree. Questions 4 and 11 are slightly different and you should mark them as indicated. There are no right or wrong answers. We are simply interested in your opinions.

1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.   5 4 3 2 1

2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.   5 4 3 2 1

3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.   5 4 3 2 1

4. The language I am planning to teach is:
   1. a very difficult language
   2. a difficult language
   3. a language of medium difficulty
   4. an easy language
   5. a very easy language

5. It's important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.   5 4 3 2 1

6. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak a foreign language.   5 4 3 2 1

7. You shouldn't say anything in the language until you can say it correctly.   5 4 3 2 1

8. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.   5 4 3 2 1

9. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.   5 4 3 2 1

10. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.   5 4 3 2 1

11. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take him to become fluent?
    1. less than a year
    2. 1-2 years
    3. 3-5 years
    4. 5-10 years
    5. You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day

12. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.   5 4 3 2 1

13. It's important to repeat and practice a lot.   5 4 3 2 1

14. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.   5 4 3 2 1

15. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.   5 4 3 2 1

16. It's important to practice in the language laboratory.   5 4 3 2 1

17. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.   5 4 3 2 1

18. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.   5 4 3 2 1

19. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.   5 4 3 2 1

20. Learning another language is a matter of translating from English.   5 4 3 2 1

21. If students learn to speak this language very well, it will help them get a good job.   5 4 3 2 1

22. It is easier to read and write a language than to speak and understand it.   5 4 3 2 1

23. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.   5 4 3 2 1

24. Americans think that it is important to speak a foreign language.   5 4 3 2 1

25. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.   5 4 3 2 1

26. Americans are good at learning foreign languages.   5 4 3 2 1

27. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.   5 4 3 2 1

APPENDIX D: BEHAVIORS AND ATTITUDES OF EFFECTIVE FOREIGN

LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Bell, T. (2005). Behaviors and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers: Results of a questionnaire study. *Foreign Language Annals, 38,* 259–270.

Table 1

TOTAL TABULAR RESPONSES TO PART ONE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire Item	Response Rate %	Mean on a Scale of 1-5	Standard of Deviation	Agreement %	Disagreement %	Uncertainty %
The effective foreign language teacher...						
B11) shows personal involvement in or enthusiasm for the TL and culture.	98.5	4.89	.39	99.4	.6	0
B40) uses the TL competently.	98.0	4.76	.53	97.0	.9	1.0
B06) bases at least some part of students' grades on their actual use of the TL.	98.5	4.67	.55	97.8	.4	1.8
B47) frequently uses authentic materials and realia (e.g., maps, pictures, artifacts, items of clothing, foods) to illustrate features of the TL and culture.	98.5	4.64	.58	97.0	1.8	1.2
B04) uses small groups to help learners experience a greater degree of involvement.	98.2	4.61	.64	96.4	1.8	1.8
B27) uses the TL as the predominant means of classroom communication.	97.8	4.56	.67	94.0	3.5	2.5
B10) adjusts learning activities to meet the needs of foreign language students with a variety of interests.	98.7	4.45	.62	94.7	4.6	.07
B14) varies learning activities of foreign language instruction depending on learners' ages.	98.0	4.44	.76	90.2	7.2	2.6
B05) gives learners a time limit to complete small group activities.	97.8	4.41	.68	92.6	5.9	1.5
B28) provides learners with concrete tasks to complete while reading or listening to texts in the TL.	98.7	4.40	.69	94.0	3.9	2.1
B44) provides opportunities for students to use the TL both within and beyond the school setting.	98.0	4.39	.63	92.0	6.6	1.4
B13) teaches foreign language students to use various learning strategies (i.e., self-evaluation, repetition, imagery, etc.).	98.5	4.38	.67	91.3	7.7	1.0
B32) teaches idiomatic expressions and language routines to help learners successfully engage in conversations in the TL.	97.4	4.34	.65	93.0	3.9	3.1
B34) encourages foreign language learners to speak in the TL beginning the first day of class.	97.8	4.28	.88	86.0	7.9	6.1
B08) uses student–student role play situations from the beginning of elementary language instruction.	98.9	4.28	.87	85.4	9.4	5.2
B41) provides opportunities for students to reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language.	98.0	4.26	.72	89.0	8.1	2.9
B03) uses information gap activities (where students have to find out unknown information from a classmate or another source).	97.2	4.25	.86	86.9	7.7	5.4
B29) teaches foreign language students to use strategies to improve their vocabulary learning (e.g., memory devices or creating a mental image of the word).	98.0	4.21	.74	85.0	12.5	2.5
B09) encourages students to express and discuss their needs and preferences for language learning.	98.2	4.15	.80	83.3	12.3	4.4
B31) devotes class time to giving examples of cultural differences between target and student's native language use.	97.8	4.10	.84	85.0	7.7	7.3
B46) integrates computer-aided instruction (e.g., computer-based exercises, e-mail, the Internet, CD-ROM, etc.) into foreign language teaching.	98.2	4.09	.80	83.0	12.0	5.0
B42) selects materials that present distinctive viewpoints that are available only through the foreign language and its cultures.	97.8	4.08	.76	80.0	16.4	3.6
B26) has students act out commands or engage in other physical activity given by the teacher to practice listening comprehension in the TL.	98.0	4.08	.77	82.6	13.1	4.3

Table 1 (cont.)

TOTAL TABULAR RESPONSES TO PART ONE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire Item	Response Rate %	Mean on a Scale of 1-5	Standard of Deviation	Agreement %	Disagreement %	Uncertainty %
The effective foreign language teacher...						
B39) understands the fundamentals of linguistic analysis (phonology, syntax) as they apply to the TL.	97.2	4.06	.95	80.0	9.8	10.2
B15) uses activities and assignments that draw learners' attention to specific grammatical features.	98.2	4.06	.87	84.2	8.1	7.7
B07) bases at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned tasks.	98.5	4.03	.89	78.7	13.6	7.7
B20) teaches appropriate hesitation or other discourse strategies to help learners gain time in conversational exchanges.	98.2	3.96	.81	74.6	4.1	20.8
B23) uses recasts (correct reformulations of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback.	98.5	3.96	.85	80.0	7.0	12.9
B43) provides opportunities for students to demonstrate understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the TL and their own.	97.2	3.96	.85	80.0	7.0	11.2
B17) simplifies his or her TL output so students can understand what is being said.	97.4	3.87	1.01	76.0	13.9	10.1
B02) teaches new complex language structures only after less complex structures have been introduced and practiced.	97.8	3.85	1.08	72.7	17.0	10.1
B19) teaches grammar inductively (i.e., gives examples before grammatical rules).	98.2	3.83	.90	72.2	9.0	18.4
B12) permits learners to select their own topics for discussion.	97.6	3.73	.82	67.7	8.5	23.0
B25) uses indirect cues or hints to signal errors to the learner (such as, asking them if they are sure their response is correct or using facial expressions or body language).	97.8	3.71	.95	70.5	14.3	14.9
B21) exposes students to different dialects of the TL.	97.4	3.63	1.03	64.7	17.0	18.2
B16) uses activities where learners need to understand a certain grammatical feature to understand the meaning of spoken or written text.	97.2	3.57	1.09	63.0	21.0	16.2
B01) creates lesson plans that emphasize grammatical aspects of the TL.	95.6	3.56	1.18	66.4	24.7	8.5
B35) explains why learner responses are inaccurate when students make errors.	95.8	3.25	1.08	48.0	26.0	23.9
B30) presents grammar rules one at a time and has student practice examples of each rule before going on to another.	97.2	3.16	1.18	46.0	33.0	19.5
B36) allows students to write summaries or answer questions on reading or listening passages in English rather than the TL.	96.5	3.09	1.21	44.0	33.0	21.2
B24) corrects errors as soon as possible after they occur.	96.7	3.05	1.15	40.0	38.0	21.2
B18) thoroughly explains new grammar rules before asking students to practice the relevant structure.	97.6	2.74	1.29	32.1	52.5	15.1
B22) requires students to practice unfamiliar grammatical forms or patterns in substitution or transformation exercises.	98.5	2.68	1.20	31.6	49.1	19.0
B45) teaches grammar deductively (i.e., gives grammatical rule before examples).	96.5	2.59	1.14	26.0	52.0	20.6
B33) encourages learners to begin speaking in the TL only when they feel they are ready to.	98.2	2.54	1.12	23.0	57.0	19.3
B38) grades written language assignments predominantly for grammatical accuracy.	97.2	2.49	1.15	27.0	63.0	9.4
B37) grades spoken language production predominantly for grammatical accuracy.	97.8	1.98	.89	9.0	82.5	8.5

Note. TL = target language.

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Table 2

TOTAL TABULAR RESPONSES TO PART TWO OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire Item	Response Rate %	Mean on a Scale of 1-5	Standard of Deviation	Agreement %	Disagreement %	Uncertainty %
T15) Foreign language learners should interact with native speakers of the TL as often as possible.	97.2	4.30	.73	92.0	3.4	4.6
T33) Familiarity with theories of SLA helps foreign language teachers teach better.	97.8	4.22	.88	87.5	4.0	8.5
T22) Foreign language learners do not always learn grammatical structures by means of formal instruction.	97.2	4.13	.59	91.0	2.9	6.1
T06) Using small group activities is likely to reduce learner anxiety.	96.1	4.12	.77	84.0	4.0	12.0
T29) Tests should imitate real-life language use situations whenever possible.	97.2	4.09	.84	84.0	7.2	8.8
T23) Activities that focus on the exchange of meaning between two speakers are more important than activities that focus on the manipulation of grammatical forms.	97.2	4.09	.95	80.0	8.4	11.6
T10) One of the most important things a foreign language teacher can do is reduce learner anxiety.	96.7	3.96	.84	80.0	7.0	11.8
T16) Each person possesses certain subconscious knowledge about language that allows him or her to learn a foreign language to some degree.	96.5	3.80	.86	69.0	5.0	23.6
T31) Portfolio assessment (a collection of student's work, such as, oral and written reports, creative projects, writings, etc.) can be used to validly and reliably measure student achievement in the foreign language.	96.9	3.71	.91	70.0	10.0	18.2
T24) Aspects of the TL that are formally learned enable learners to edit their TL speech for grammatical correctness.	97.2	3.70	.80	70.0	8.0	20.6
T12) Using small group instruction is likely to enhance student self-correction.	96.9	3.26	.99	44.0	23.0	31.5
T21) Foreign language learners acquire foreign language structures in a predictable order, whether the language is learned in a classroom or not.	96.9	3.12	.99	39.0	28.0	30.9
T07) Grammatical structures that are formally taught are more difficult to use in natural communication than grammatical structures that are learned in natural communication outside the classroom.	95.8	3.06	1.05	37.0	33.0	28.0
T26) Making the first occurrence of a new word memorable is more important than practicing it several times.	95.6	3.00	1.09	33.0	34.0	30.6
T20) The learner who identifies with members of the target culture group learns the TL more accurately than the learner who learns the language for personal gain (i.e., monetary).	96.7	2.98	1.02	30.0	33.0	34.4
T05) A foreign language is learned predominantly by imitating correct models of the language.	95.0	2.94	1.14	41.0	41.0	19.0
T03) Foreign language learners should be corrected when they make grammatical mistakes.	93.9	2.93	1.00	34.0	36.0	28.0
T11) Most of the mistakes learners make are due to differences between the TL and their native language.	96.7	2.89	1.05	32.0	42.0	21.9
T01) Adult learners will rarely, if ever, achieve native-like proficiency in a foreign language.	96.5	2.80	1.25	37.0	50.0	12.0
T30) Testing students on what has been taught in class is more important than testing their overall language development.	94.1	2.58	.94	17.0	53.0	28.0

Table 2 (cont.)

TOTAL TABULAR RESPONSES TO PART TWO OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE (CONT.)

Questionnaire Item	Response Rate %	Mean on a Scale of 1-5	Standard of Deviation	Agreement %	Disagreement %	Uncertainty %
T04) Learning a foreign language "on the street" is generally more effective than learning it in the classroom.	95.8	2.53	1.04	19.0	57.0	22.1
T13) Foreign language learners should be put into groups of fast and slow learners.	96.3	2.52	1.05	20.0	57.0	21.7
T18) The higher a person's IQ, the more likely he or she is to learn a foreign language well.	96.6	2.42	.90	12.0	57.0	31.0
T08) It is essential to correct most errors.	95.4	2.42	1.05	19.0	65.0	16.0
T19) Using small group instruction is likely to cause students to learn inaccurate forms of the TL from each other.	97.6	2.37	.86	13.0	67.3	19.7
T14) Too much interaction with native speakers can hinder beginning foreign language learners because native speakers generally take control of conversations.	96.1	2.36	.98	14.0	63.5	22.5
T17) Foreign language learners can learn to use a foreign language proficiently by mere exposure to it (i.e., reading in or listening to the language).	96.5	2.35	1.05	17.0	67.2	15.8
T09) Written and spoken language comprehensible to the learner but slightly above the difficulty level of his or her productive ability is all that is necessary for foreign language acquisition.	95.4	2.31	1.01	14.0	70.7	15.3
T27) The teacher's insistence on rapid speaking by learners improves TL production.	96.5	2.14	.84	7.0	73.3	19.7
T02) Adults learn a foreign language in a manner similar to the way they learned their first language.	97.2	2.12	1.00	13.0	77.2	9.8
T32) Teaching about the target culture is not as important as teaching grammar and vocabulary.	96.3	1.93	.84	7.0	83.0	8.3
T28) Native or near-native language proficiency of the teacher is more important than his or her teaching skills.	97.4	1.88	.77	3.0	86.3	10.7
T25) Learners must understand every word of an oral message to understand what is being said in the TL.	97.4	1.43	.68	2.0	96.5	1.5

Note: TL = target language.

APPENDIX E: PERMISSION TO USE BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

INVENTORY

Permissions

Bey, Claudia Ms CIV USA TRADOC

From:
Sent: Monday, February 08, 2010 12:29 PM
To:
Subject: Re: Permission to use T-BALLI

Dear Ms. Bey:

Thank you for your interest in my work. Subject to the usual requirements for acknowledgment, I am pleased to grant you permission to use the Teacher Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory in your research. Specifically, you must acknowledge my authorship of the TBALLI in any oral or written reports of your research. I also request that you inform me of your findings. Some scoring information about the TBALLI can be found in my book Becoming a Language Teacher: A Practical Guide to Second Language Learning and Teaching, Allyn & Bacon, 2008.

Best wishes on your project.

Sincerely,
Elaine K. Horwitz

Hi Claudia,

It was lovely to meet you. Best wishes on your project.

Best regards,
Elaine

    Dear Dr. Horwitz,

    It was such a pleasure for me to meet you at the language proficiency
    meeting last week in Austin. As I mentioned during our conversation, I
    am a doctoral student in the School of Education at USF and I am
    currently taking a survey research course. As a class project, I need to
    administer a survey and would like to use the T-BALLI as published in
    the Foreign Language Annals 1985 for this purpose.
    In addition, I am working on my dissertation with a working title of
    "The transformative effects of a preservice teacher education program on
    teacher beliefs about foreign language teaching." I would also like to
    ask for permission to use the T-BALLI to assess teacher beliefs before
    and after the pre-service teacher education program that we briefed
    about.

    Thank you for your support,

    Claudia

    Claudia Bey
    Academic Associate Dean
    Faculty Development
    Defense Language Institute

APPENDIX F PERMISSION TO USE BELL SURVEY

Permission to use Questionnaire

4 messages

Dear Dr. Bell,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Education at the University of San Francisco and I work in the faculty development division of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center in Monterey, CA

 I am working on my dissertation with the working title of "The transformative effects of a preservice teacher education program on teacher beliefs about foreign language teaching." I would like to assess the teachers' beliefs before and after the preservice program at the Defense Language Institute and I am looking for a survey instrument. I found your article " Behaviors and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers:Results of a questionnaire study" with the survey items, and would like to request permission to use and adapt this survey to our setting. Would you please let me know what you require from me to use your instrument?

Thank you for your support,

Claudia Bey

Thu, May 13, 2010 at 8:35 PM

Dear Claudia,

Thanks for your email and interest in adapting my questionnaire items for your doctoral research. I would be happy to allow you to use the items in my article as long as it's cited and as long as you send me the results of your questionnaire. :)

Good luck in your research,
Teresa Bell

APPENDIX G: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING BELIEF SURVEY (PRE-ICC)

Foreign Language Teaching Beliefs Survey (Pre-ICC) *

Survey ID_____

In this survey, you will be asked to react to statements about your own foreign language learning experience and what you think should happen in a foreign language classroom. Please mark the option that you agree with by placing an X over the corresponding box.

PART I Foreign Language Learning Experience

In this part of the survey, you will be asked to respond to statements about your own foreign language learning experience. Please place an X in the appropriate box.

When you were studying a foreign language:

	always	mostly	can't remember	seldom	never
a. Were most of the class activities done in small groups and pairs					
b. Was the teacher the authority figure in the classroom?					
c. Did the teacher bring realia (items from the target culture) into the class?					
d. Did students have to memorize vocabulary lists?					
e. Did the teacher lecture about grammar rules?					
f. Did the students conjugate verbs in class?					
g. Did the teacher correct errors by providing the rule?					
h. Did you do any role-plays or other communicative activities?					
i. Was most class time devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and syntax)?					
j. Did the teacher use repetition drills with the whole class?					

PART II Foreign Language Teaching Beliefs

In this part of the survey, please indicate to what extent you agree/or disagree with the 35 statements about language teaching and learning. Place an X in the appropriate box.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Undecided	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. It is best to use the target language starting with the first day of instruction.							
2. In a good foreign language class, small group or pair work is used frequently							
3. It is necessary to learn about the foreign culture in order to speak a foreign language better.							
4. It is essential to drill grammar patterns to help students achieve accuracy.							
5. An effective foreign language teacher motivates students by making learning fun.							
6. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.							
7. The most effective way to teach grammatical features is to explain the rule and have students do lots of fill-in-the-blanks exercises.							
8. Group work is not an effective use of class time.							
9. It's important to improve students' ability in the foreign language through practice in the language lab.							
10. It is best to correct students' speech by providing the correct forms.							
11. It is essential that the teacher provides lots of information about the target language to the learners.							
12. To achieve high proficiency in the foreign language, one has to work hard and follow instructions.							
13. Students' errors need to be corrected as soon as they occur.							
14. The effective teacher primarily uses the foreign language in the classroom.							
15. A good foreign language teacher knows a lot about how a foreign language is learnt.							
16. Most of the class time should be spent on learning the language system (i.e. pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and syntax)?							

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Undecided	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
17. Part of a class should be devoted to giving examples of cultural differences between target and native culture.							
18. Good foreign language instruction incorporates the use of technology (i.e. Computers, Internet, Blackboard).							
19. The effective foreign language teacher will provide opportunities for students to use the target language for real communication.							
20. Foreign language learners should be instructed in the use of learning strategies (i.e. previewing, skimming, inferring information).							
21. Students learn each others' mistakes when they work in pairs.							
22. Learners can understand the meaning of texts (written or spoken) best by applying grammatical rules.							
23. When students make errors it is important to give them the rule that was violated.							
24. Making the first occurrence of a new word memorable is more important than repeating it several times.							
25. Using small group activities is likely to reduce learner anxiety							
26. Activities that focus on meaning are more important than activities that focus on grammatical forms.							
27. Foreign language learners should be put separated into groups of fast and slow learners.							
28. A foreign language is learned predominantly by imitating correct models of the language.							

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Undecided	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
29. Learning a foreign language in an immersion environment is more effective than learning it in the classroom.							
30. Effective teachers usually give grammar rules before they provide examples.							
31. Adults learn a foreign language in a manner similar to the way they learned their first language.							
32. Native-like language proficiency of the teacher is more important than his/her teaching skills.							
33. Learners must understand every word of a text to understand what is being said in the foreign language.							
34. Memorizing dialogs in the foreign language increases learners' proficiency in the language.							
35. If learners are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.							

PART III Demographics

Please answer a few questions about yourself. The information you provide is completely confidential and will not be shared.

1. What is your gender? Please mark the appropriate box. M □ F□

2. Are you a civilian language instructor □, or a military language instructor □?

3. How old are you? Please place a check mark in the appropriate box.

   a. 20–30 years □
   b. 31–40 years □
   c. 41–50 years □
   d. 51–60 years □
   e. 61–70 years □

4. What is your home country?
   _____

5. What is your native language?
   _____

6. What language are you teaching at the DLIFLC?_____

7. How long have you been teaching at the DLIFLC? Please mark the appropriate box.

   a. Less than 1 month □
   b. 1–3 months□
   c. 4–5 months□
   d. 6–8 months□
   e. 9–10 months□
   f. 11–12 months□
   g. More than 1 year□

8. How long have you lived in the USA? Please mark the appropriate box.
Fewer than 5 years □

   a. 6–10 years □
   b. 11–15 years □
   c. 16–20 years □
   d. 21–25 years□
   e. 26–30 years□

9. In which country/countries were you primarily educated? Please mark the appropriate box.

    a. Home country□
    b. USA□
    c. Somewhere else□

10. Have you taught any foreign language classes before your employment at DLIFLC?

Yes □ No □

If yes, mark the appropriate box below.

    a. Home country□
    b. USA□
    c. Somewhere else□

11. Have you previously taken any courses related to foreign language teaching?

Yes □ No □

If yes, mark the appropriate box below.

    a. Home country□
    b. USA□
    c. Somewhere else□

Thank you very much for your participation!
Contact me with any questions or comments at

* Adapted with permission from Horwitz, E. (1985). Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)—Teacher Version; and Bell, T. (2005). Behaviors and Attitudes of effective foreign language teachers: Results of a questionnaire study. *Foreign Language Annals, 38,* 259–270.

APPENDIX H: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING BELIEF SURVEY (POST-ICC)

Foreign Language Teaching Beliefs Survey (Post-ICC) *

Survey ID_____

In this survey you will be asked to give your opinion about what you think should happen in a foreign language classroom. Please indicate to what extent you agree/or disagree with the 35 statements about language teaching and learning. Please mark the option that you agree with by placing an X over the corresponding box.
Item 36 will ask you about your ICC experience with separate instructions

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Undecided	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. It is best to use the target language starting with the first day of instruction.							
2. In a good foreign language class, small group or pair work is used frequently							
3. It is necessary to learn about the foreign culture in order to speak a foreign language better.							
4. It is essential to drill grammar patterns to help students achieve accuracy.							
5. An effective foreign language teacher motivates students by making learning fun.							
6. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.							
7. The most effective way to teach grammatical features is to explain the rule and have students do lots of fill-in-the-blanks exercises.							

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Undecided	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
8. Group work is not an effective use of class time.							
9. It's important to improve students' ability in the foreign language through practice in the language lab.							
10. It is best to correct students' speech by providing the correct forms.							
11. It is essential that the teacher provides lots of information about the target language to the learners.							
12. To achieve high proficiency in the foreign language, one has to work hard and follow instructions.							
13. Students' errors need to be corrected as soon as they occur.							
14. The effective teacher primarily uses the foreign language in the classroom.							
15. A good foreign language teacher knows a lot about how a foreign language is learnt.							
16. Most of the class time should be spent on learning the language system (i.e. pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and syntax)?							
17. Part of a class should be devoted to giving examples of cultural differences between target and native culture.							

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Undecided	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
18. Good foreign language instruction incorporates the use of technology (i.e. Computers, Internet, Blackboard).							
19. The effective foreign language teacher will provide opportunities for students to use the target language for real communication.							
20. Foreign language learners should be instructed in the use of learning strategies (i.e. previewing, skimming, inferring information).							
21. Students learn each others' mistakes when they work in pairs.							
22. Learners can understand the meaning of texts (written or spoken) best by applying grammatical rules.							
23. When students make errors it is important to give them the rule that was violated.							
24. Making the first occurrence of a new word memorable is more important than repeating it several times.							
25. Using small group activities is likely to reduce learner anxiety							
26. Activities that focus on meaning are more important than activities that focus on grammatical forms.							
27. Foreign language learners should be put separated into groups of fast and slow learners.							

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Undecided	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
28. A foreign language is learned predominantly by imitating correct models of the language.							
29. Learning a foreign language in an immersion environment is more effective than learning it in the classroom.							
30. Effective teachers usually give grammar rules before they provide examples.							
31. Adults learn a foreign language in a manner similar to the way they learned their first language.							
32. Native-like language proficiency of the teacher is more important than his/her teaching skills.							
33. Learners must understand every word of a text to understand what is being said in the foreign language.							
34. Memorizing dialogs in the foreign language increases learners' proficiency in the language.							
35. If learners are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.							

36. Which activities in the ICC did you find most important for your professional

development as a foreign language teacher at the DLIFLC?

Activity	Very important	Moderately Important	Slightly important	Not important
Observation of other teachers in department				
Teaching demonstrations by ICC facilitators				
Readings about foreign language teaching				
Discussions in the ICC				
Reflective Journals				
Preparations (lesson planning) for Teaching Days				
Practice teaching in language department				
Feedback from peers and facilitators				
Videotaping of lesson and reflection				

Please write down any other activity not listed above that you consider influential for

your current beliefs

_____

_____

_____

Thank you very much for your participation!

Contact me with any questions or comments at Claudia.Bey

* Adapted with permission from Horwitz, E. (1985). Beliefs about Language Learning
Inventory (BALLI) – Teacher Version and Bell, T (2005). Behaviors and attitudes of
effective foreign language teachers: Results of a questionnaire study. *Foreign Language
Annals, 38,* 259-270.

APPENDIX I: VALIDITY PANEL MEMBER CHART

Panel Members	Education	Foreign language teaching experience	Teacher education experience
Panel Member 1	Ed. D. – Organization and Leadership	Modern Greek (non-native)	Facilitator in ICC ICC curriculum developer
Panel Member 2	Ph.D. Literature	Hindi (native)	Facilitator in ICC ICC curriculum developer
Panel Member 3	Ph. D. Second Language Acquisition	Korean (native) French (non-native)	Department Chair in Korean Department; California Foreign Language Project Workshops for K- 16 teachers.
Panel Member 4	Ph.D. Instructional Systems Design	Chinese- Mandarin (native)	ICC facilitator Curriculum Designer of Teacher Development Courses
Panel Member 5	MA Interpretation and Translation	Arabic – Modern Standard and Egyptian Dialect (native)	ICC facilitator

APPENDIX J: ITEM ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING BELIEF

SURVEY

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
a. group/pairwork	202.63	534.923	.392	.853
b. teacher authority	202.50	527.299	.390	.853
c. realia	202.62	546.031	.232	.856
d. memorize vocabulary	202.60	525.825	.433	.852
e. lecture grammar	202.59	529.500	.388	.853
f. conjugate verbs	202.54	536.341	.327	.854
g. explicit error correction	202.54	537.505	.328	.854
h. communicative	202.65	538.918	.326	.854
i. language system	202.59	540.067	.295	.855
j. repetition drills	202.62	534.031	.375	.853
1 TL use	199.65	548.232	.173	.857
2 pair/group	199.44	553.713	.174	.857
3 culture	199.12	561.031	.010	.858
4 drill grammar	202.49	518.552	.557	.849
5 motivate fun	199.22	557.040	.118	.857
6 guess vocab	199.37	553.042	.190	.856
7 rule/fill in blank	200.82	518.386	.507	.850
8 group not effective	200.12	523.628	.498	.850
9 lab	202.35	536.888	.345	.854
10 correct forms	202.56	525.176	.546	.850
11 info about TL	201.99	521.209	.574	.849
12 prof hard work	202.71	532.270	.418	.852
13 immediate correct	201.79	530.793	.359	.853
14 TL primacy	199.34	559.063	.032	.859
15 know SLA	199.41	554.216	.143	.857
16 primacy system	201.18	528.745	.421	.852
17 cultural diff	200.16	567.570	-.125	.862
18 technology	200.06	559.280	.021	.859
19 communication	199.04	557.297	.098	.857
20 learning strategies	199.49	553.865	.130	.857
21 learn mistakes	201.62	527.792	.377	.853

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
22 apply rules	201.51	521.358	.545	.849
23 rule correction	201.85	516.008	.576	.848
24 memorable	201.12	564.971	-.078	.865
25 small group	199.90	555.258	.087	.858
26 focus on meaning	200.38	558.449	.023	.860
27 slow/fast groups	201.21	525.987	.484	.851
28 FL imitation	201.99	521.507	.518	.850
29 immersion	200.50	568.254	-.126	.863
30 deductive approach	200.85	522.754	.516	.850
31 adult SLA	200.35	540.650	.270	.855
32 teacher proficiency	200.44	517.534	.576	.848
33 complete comp	199.74	539.929	.398	.853
34 memorize dialogs	200.74	526.317	.442	.851
35 fossilization	201.40	521.079	.423	.852

NOTE. SLA = second-language acquisition; TL = target language; FL = foreign language.

APPENDIX K: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING BELIEF SURVEY PART I

FACTOR LOADINGS

FLTBS items	Traditional	Communicative
j. repetition drills	**.85**	.11
b. teacher authority	**.71**	
d. memorize vocabulary	**.70**	-.18
i. primacy language system	**.61**	-.27
g. explicit error correction	**.57**	-.31
e. lecture grammar	**.56**	**-.53**
f. conjugate verbs	**.55**	-.34
c. realia		**.83**
a. group/pairwork	-.23	**.81**
h. communicative	-.24	**.78**

Note. FLTBS = Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey.

APPENDIX L: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING BELIEF SURVEY PART II

FACTOR LOADINGS

FLTBS item	Traditional orientation	Communicative orientation
23 rule correction	**.84**	.20
4 drill grammar	**.74**	
22 apply rules	**.72**	
11 info about TL	**.72**	
7 rule/fill in blank	**.71**	
30 deductive approach	**.70**	-.13
28 FL imitation	**.69**	
10 correct forms	**.67**	.21
8 group not effective	**.67**	-.23
13 immediate correct	**.65**	.17
27 slow/fast groups	**.65**	-.37
32 teacher proficiency	**.61**	-.30
12 hard work	**.60**	.33
21 learn mistakes	**.59**	
34 memorize dialogs	**.57**	-.14
35 fossilization	**.55**	.15
16 primacy system	**.51**	-.30
33 complete comp	**.45**	-.20
9 lab	**.42**	.19
31 adult SLA	**.41**	.19
19 communication		**.72**
14 TL primacy		**.70**
25 small group		**.61**
18 technology		**.59**
2 pair/group		**.53**
17 cultural diff	.27	**.49**
5 motivate fun		**.49**
29 immersion	.26	**.41**
24 memorable	.13	.37
26 focus on meaning		.31
15 know SLA	-.23	.29
20 learning strategies	-.22	.28
1 TL use	-.12	.25
3 culture		.25

FLTBS item	Traditional orientation	Communicative orientation
6 guess vocabulary	-.17	.18

Note. Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface; FLTBS = Foreign Language Teaching Belief Survey; SLA = second-language acquisition.

APPENDIX M: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD OF THE DEFENSE

LANGUAGE INSTITUTE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER

DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY
DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER
AND PRESIDIO OF MONTEREY
MONTEREY CA 93944-3236

10 September 2010

Institutional Review Board
U.S. Army Assurance: DOD A20209

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects
University of San Francisco (USF)
2130 Fulton Street
San Francisco, CA 94117

Dear Members of the USF IRB:

On behalf of the U.S. Army Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), I am writing to formally indicate our awareness of a research project proposed by Ms. Claudia Bey, a graduate student at USF.

This research project, tentatively entitled *The Effects of a Pre-service Teacher Education Program on Teacher Beliefs about Foreign Language Teaching*, has been reviewed by Dr. Donald Fischer (DLIFLC Provost), and he has approved the use of DoD personnel (military and civilian) as participants in this research project.

I have been informed that the USF IRB will conduct the review and maintain institutional oversight of this project. Once the USF IRB has completed its review of the project, I ask that a copy of the outcome of that review (and approval number) be send to me so we may maintain a folder on this project in our file of current research projects.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

J. Jeffrey Crowson, Ph.D.
Senior Research Psychologist
IRB Chair
(831) 393-1518
jeff.crowson@us.army.mil

APPENDIX N: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD UNIVERSITY OF SAN

FRANCISCO

IRB Application #10-108--Approved Inbox | X
Print all   Expand all   Forward all

⭐ irbphs to cbey, me, Patricia   show details 12/3/10   ↩ Reply ▾

December 3, 2010

Dear Ms. Bey::

The Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (IRBPHS) at the University of San Francisco (USF) has reviewed your request for human subjects approval regarding your study.

Your application has been approved by the committee (IRBPHS #10-108). Please note the following:

1. Approval expires twelve (12) months from the dated noted above. At that time, if you are still in collecting data from human subjects, you must file a renewal application.

2. Any modifications to the research protocol or changes in instrumentation (including wording of items) must be communicated to the IRBPHS. Re-submission of an application may be required at that time.

3. Any adverse reactions or complications on the part of participants must be reported (in writing) to the IRBPHS within ten (10) working days.

If you have any questions, please contact the IRBPHS at (415) 422-6091.

On behalf of the IRBPHS committee, I wish you much success in your research.

Sincerely,

Terence Patterson, EdD, ABPP
Chair, Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects
----
IRBPHS – University of San Francisco
Counseling Psychology Department
Education Building – Room 017
2130 Fulton Street
San Francisco, CA 94117-1080
(415) 422-6091 (Message)
(415) 422-5528 (Fax)
irbphs@usfca.edu

⬇Claudia Bey

APPENDIX O: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

UNIVERSITY OF SAN FRANCISCO

CONSENT TO BE A RESEARCH SUBJECT

Ms. Claudia Bey, a graduate student in the School of Education at the University of San Francisco, is doing a study on the impact of the preservice program at the Defense Language Institute (ICC) on the foreign language teaching beliefs of preservice teachers.

I am being asked to participate because I am a foreign language teacher attending the Instructor Certification Course.

Procedures

If I agree to be a participant in this study, the following will happen:

1.	I will complete a short questionnaire giving basic information about me, including age, gender, country of origin, and teaching experience.
2.	I will complete a survey about foreign language teaching at the beginning and at the end of the ICC.

Risks and/or Discomforts

It is possible that some of the questions on the teaching foreign languages survey may make me feel uncomfortable, but I am free to decline to answer any questions I do not wish to answer or to stop participation at any time.

Participation in research may mean a loss of confidentiality. Study records will be kept as confidential as is possible. No individual identities will be used in any reports or publications resulting from the study. Study information will be coded and kept in locked files at all times. Only the researcher will have access to the files.

Benefits

There will be no direct benefit to me from participating in this study, but your participation will likely benefit preservice teachers attending the ICC in the future.

Questions

If I have any questions or comments about participation in this study, I should first contact the researcher, who can be reached at   by phone or by email   . If for some reason I do not wish to do this, I may contact the IRBPHS, which is concerned with protection of volunteers in research projects. I may reach the IRBPHS office by calling (415) 422-6091 and leaving a voicemail message, by

e-mailing IRBPHS@usfca.edu, or by writing to the IRBPHS, Department of Psychology, University of San Francisco, 2130 Fulton Street, San Francisco, CA 94117-1080.

Consent

I have been given a copy of the "Research Subject's Bill of Rights" and I have been given a copy of this consent form to keep.

PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH IS VOLUNTARY. I am free to decline to be in this study, or to withdraw from it at any point. My decision as to whether or not to participate in this study will have no influence on my present or future status as a participant in the ICC or as a teacher at the DLIFLC.

My signature below indicates that I agree to participate in this study.

_____

Subject's Signature   Date of Signature

_____

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent   Date of Signature